

**THE RETENTION OF WOMEN FROM A LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE IN A HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTION**

by

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## DECLARATION

Student number: **49129929**

I, MARYAM MOOSA, declare that this dissertation, entitled “**The retention of women from a leadership perspective in a higher education institution**” is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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SIGNATURE

11 November 2016  
DATE

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

*In the name of Allah, the most Compassionate, the most Merciful.*

First and foremost I give praise to the most High, my Creator – Allah. I know that nothing in life comes without His blessing and will. I am so grateful for the abilities and knowledge that He has granted me. I pray that I continue to learn and grow - personally, professionally and spiritually.

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# **THE RETENTION OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION FROM A LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Women form a critical component of the workforce of South Africa. Therefore the issue of retaining women should be a strategic priority for organisations. This study focused on identifying general retention factors for women in a higher education institution. The research also examined the retention of women from two distinct leadership perspectives: how different leadership styles of managers and the presence of leadership opportunities for women could affect their retention. A cross-sectional quantitative research approach was followed. A non-probability simple random sample was drawn from permanent female staff at a higher education institution. Through the process of exploratory factor analysis, six retention factors were identified, namely unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support. Correlation and regression analyses were conducted. The results indicated that various leadership constructs predicted the retention of women. Recommendations for retention strategies aimed specifically at women are suggested on the basis of these findings.

### **Key terms**

retention, employee retention, leadership, leadership styles, leadership opportunities, advancement, women, female employees, work-life balance, higher education

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# **CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND**

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## **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This research focuses on the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education institutions from a leadership perspective in the South African context. With the new world of work, this is a very current topic and there is a great need for such research, as will be explained in the background to and rationale of the study. The problem statement, objectives of the research and the methods used to conduct the research will then be discussed. A plan of the research will conclude this chapter. The intended research aims to contribute to the knowledge field of Human Resource Management.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE**

Women are changing the world of work (Charles, 2011). In the past, the majority of the workforce consisted primarily of males. However, with the turn of the 20th century, females were leaving their homes to enter the workforce. In the United States, the labour force participation rate of women stood at 34% in 1964, and by the year 2010 this number had increased to 47% (English, Hartmann & Hayes, 2010). Casale and Posel (2002) indicate that South African women are following the same route, with a trend of feminisation of the labour force in the country. Feminisation refers to the increase in women's share of the labour force, together with an increase in women's share of employment (Casale & Posel, 2002). Carli (2010) suggests that women not only have infiltrated the workplace, but they have also succeeded in becoming highly successful and important resources in their organisations.

Women make up a substantial number of South Africa's working population. In the Quarterly Labour Force Survey of September 2011, the labour force participation rate of women was reported at 48% (Statistics South Africa, 2011). In the second quarter of 2016, the labour force participation rate of women in the country was standing at an impressive 51.4% (Statistics South Africa, 2016). This indicates that the labour force participation rate of women in South Africa has increased by 3.4% over the past five years, which is significant in terms of the size of the population of the country.

These numbers are anticipated to increase in the years to come. Unfortunately, the representation of women in top management positions is still quite low in comparison to the number of males represented at this level – in the private sector, males account for 79.9% of top management positions, while women make up only 20.1%; in the public sector the numbers are a little more optimistic, with women filling 30.6% of top management positions and men 69.4% (SA Department of Labour, 2016). Employers are being urged to prioritise increasing the representation of women in these positions. Women are also well represented in politics, as is shown by the fact that South Africa ranks 8<sup>th</sup> in the world with regard to the number of women in parliament (Inter Parliamentary Union, 2016). This shows that women are playing a crucial role in South Africa's future.

Specifically in the context of higher education, where women were previously seen as fulfilling only teacher or secretary roles, they are now highly represented in academia, which previously was a male-dominated field (Cotteril & Letherby, 2005; Machika, 2014). The Council of Higher Education in South Africa reported that, in 2006, women outnumbered men in public higher education for the first time (Council on Higher Education, 2012). In a survey conducted in 2007, the results showed that, in the South African higher education workforce, women comprised 21% of the Deputy Vice Chancellors and 21% of the Executive Directors (HERS-SA, 2016). This rise, although encouraging, has not created a convincing impact, since there still remains a substantial gender inequality gap at higher education institutions (Machika, 2014). Still, it is definitely a move in the right direction for women in academia. Female academics are no longer a myth but a visible reality, and they are taking the academic world by storm, one high-heeled step at a time.

The context of higher education is also significant to this study. Higher education has many distinct purposes and is of much political and social value to a country (Badat, 2010). Mazibuko (2006) writes that higher education institutions are embarking on a period of transformation and of finding their identities. The question is whether they will go forward in their thinking, or remain stagnant and unwilling to change. Winberg (2006) is of the opinion that these institutions are constantly being examined to be more diverse and representative of the country they serve. This is of utmost importance in a country where diversity has become a key issue. Higher education institutions are the providers of knowledge and, as such, they should set the benchmark in terms of practising the knowledge they so adequately impart. The reason why

higher education has been chosen as the context of this study is due to its importance for the development of a country and, more importantly, for the development of its people.

The importance of women in the corporate world, in higher education and in the development of the South African economy as a whole has been recognised. Yet for most women, their careers are not the only responsibility that they carry. O'Neil, Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) propose that work is only a fragment of a women's larger life context. In addition to their work, women are also traditionally seen as the primary caregivers at home. Women continue to carry the greater share of the responsibility of looking after the family, cooking, cleaning and the general maintenance of the household in comparison to their male counterparts (Walters & Whitehouse, 2012). In addition to this, Bianchi and Milkie (2010) add that caring for children remains more so within the scope of a mother's duty than a father's. This means that women are likely to become both high-earning breadwinners and communal primary caregivers (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). The question then arises whether women are capable of performing well in both roles. Harcar (2007) came to the conclusion that dysfunctional behaviours (tardiness, absenteeism, etc.) and employee burnout could result from high levels of interference of one role on the other. Women struggle with feelings of guilt about leaving their children and managing home demands while also having to cope with the persistent stresses of working life. For many women, the stress caused by this can become a serious threat to their mental health (Grice et al., 2007).

In addition to this, and perhaps of greater concern to the field of human resource management, are the high numbers of women leaving organisations today. More women than men are noted as leaving their organisations, especially at senior levels (Anderson, Vinnicombe & Singh, 2010). Jo (2008) supports this view and notes that women are more likely to leave their jobs for non-economic reasons. In line with the problems women encounter, as stated above, Deery (2008) reports that emotional exhaustion has been identified as a major cause of employee turnover. A cover story in the *New York Times* addressed this issue by confirming that women in the twenty-first century are taking part in what has been called "the opt-out revolution", which states that women are voluntarily leaving their jobs and organisations (Belkin, 2003). This is not only an international trend, as current research in South Africa shows that organisations are failing to retain their female talent due to their inability to accommodate women's needs (Clark, 2007). This finding is disturbing, considering the intentional aspect of women's withdrawal from organisations, coupled with the talent and skills that women have to offer organisations.

Voluntary turnover can be very costly and disturbing to organisations, even if the rate of turnover is not very high (Jo, 2008). Netswera, Rankhumise and Mavundla (2005) go on to comment that, with the high costs associated with replacing employees, many organisations cannot afford to recruit and train employees only for them to leave the organisation. South Africa is experiencing a state of crisis with regard to the availability of skilled or 'knowledge workers' (Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009). This fuels the problem, making it very difficult for organisations to replace talented employees. Organisations are faced with a huge obstacle, as they are not only losing out on a critical resource, but they are also left footing the bill. Furthermore, organisations will experience an impact on productivity when an employee leaves the organisation (Ton & Huckman, 2008).

In order to avoid these negative consequences, organisations need to put systems in place to ensure the retention of women. Frank, Finnegan and Taylor (2004, p. 13) define retention as "the effort by an employer to keep desirable workers in order to meet business objectives", while Yamamoto (2011, p. 3550) defines retention from an organisational perspective as "securing employees in a company" and makes mention of the word's general meaning, which is to 'prevent from leaving'. From the above definitions, two features are prominent. The first is that the responsibility for retention lies with the employer. This is a crucial point that must be emphasised and pointed out to organisations that make little or no attempt to keep their employees. The second aspect that stands out from the above definitions is that retention is not a complicated term to understand; this is shown by its brief description in both definitions. It is basically the process of holding on to employees for as long as possible, which in turn leads to reaching organisational objectives. The problem does not arise from a lack of understanding of the concept of retention, but more so in its implementation.

The obligation of organisations to retain their female talent has been established, and the meaning of retention has been explained. The big question now is what retains women in an organisation? This question forms the basis of this study, and the following paragraphs will explore in greater detail some of the factors that could affect the retention of women.

As times are changing, working women increasingly need to balance work and life (Fleetwood, 2007). However, what defines work and life must first be distinguished. Eikhof, Warhurst and Haunschild (2007) point out that the assumption underlying the work-life debate is that work is regarded as a negative aspect, while life is associated with caring responsibilities – mostly

childcare. As most women are the primary caregivers, they make up the main target group for many work-life balance practices (O'Neil et al., 2008). There are many views on what actually constitutes work-life balance practices (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Eaton, 2003). The most widespread approach, however, is from the business perspective of what will be gained by implementing these practices. The answer is simple – attracting new members, lower levels of work-life conflict and overall superior organisational effectiveness (Beauregard & Henry, 2009).

Metz (2011) is of the opinion that organisations try to implement supportive work-life policies and programmes to counter the conflict of work and life, but many are seen as inept in keeping women with the organisation. The reason for this could be that, as research has shown, the career paths of men and women differ (O'Neil et al., 2008). This must be taken into consideration by organisations and employers to better understand the needs of women and to implement supportive practices that are consistent with this. These practices are not only beneficial professionally, but offer advantages on a personal level as well. It has been reported that, by providing family-friendly programmes and practices, there is an increase not only in labour force participation but also in fertility rates (Brough, Holt, Bauld, Biggs & Ryan, 2008). However the most important benefit of work-life balance in relation to this study is that it is an accepted tool/strategy to improve the retention of employees (Wise & Bond, 2003).

It is evident that work-life balance practices and flexible work practices are inevitably linked (Fleetwood, 2007). In order to facilitate work-life balance, organisations must introduce work-life policies such as flexible work practices (Ten Brummelhuis & Van der Lippe, 2010). The increasing use of flexibility in the workplace has been simultaneous with the materialisation of work-life balance in recent years (Maxwell, Rankine, Bell & MacVicar, 2007). Lambert, Marler and Gueutal (2008, p. 107) offer the following definition, viz. that flexible work practices are “employer provided benefits that permit employees some level of control over when and where they work outside of the standard workday”. This definition provides simple clarity to the concept of flexibility.

Flexible work practices as a work-life balance policy have received worldwide attention in recent years for numerous reasons. To begin with, the world of work is changing due to globalisation, the introduction of new technology and advancements in communication (Currie & Eveline, 2011). There is no longer a set workweek. Employees are no longer bound to their desks, but are now able to set their own times and pace. The typical ‘nine-to-five’ type of day is a thing of

the past for many organisations and individuals. One of the major contributing factors to utilising work-life balance practices is also the rising participation of women in the labour market. Grobler and De Bruyn (2011) explain that the diversity of the workforce has increased, which increases the need for greater flexibility and work-life balance. The question posed is, what does flexibility actually offer? It has been reported that flexibility in the workplace contributes positively to attracting, motivating and retaining valuable employees, enhancing efficiency and effectiveness, and increasing employee satisfaction and engagement (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill & Brennan, 2008). There is also evidence that flexible work practices lead to lower turnover intentions (O'Brien & Hayden, 2008), which is beneficial to this study. In another study it was shown that the ability to handle the balance between work and life and perceived flexibility increases employee engagement and expected retention (Richman, 2006).

From the above discussion it is clear that increasing work-life balance by possibly using flexible work practices is highly advantageous to an organisation, as it could have a direct link to retention. Policies that increase independence and assimilation between work and life are valuable to organisations (Timms et al., 2015). It is also highly beneficial to employees, who will experience more job satisfaction, lower work-family conflict and lower turnover intentions (Masuda et al., 2012). However, it is important to note that work-life balance and flexible work practices are not the only factors that may have an impact on the retention of women, nor do they function independently. The retention of women is a complex issue that will require a combination of strategies in order to be effective. Therefore, other retention factors (child/elder care support, compensation, benefits, educational assistance, fair treatment, etc.) will also be analysed in this study.

At this point, the leadership perspective of this study must be presented. The issue of leadership is of major importance to this study, and a difference between management and leadership must be noted here. Management is often defined in simple terms as getting things done through people. At the core of management practice is a process that involves delegation (delegating tasks to others), authority (giving employees the right to do the tasks) and responsibility (holding employees accountable) (Bushman, Glascoff, Doty, Harold & Burke, 2010). Management is thus characterised by the allocation, division and synchronisation of tasks or the arrangement of the workflow through an organisational hierarchy. Leadership, on the other hand, is characterised less by the allocation of work tasks and more related to stimulating employees through a sense of focus and commitment (Knights & Willmott, 2012). It

thus would be safe to say that leadership has a much broader focus than management and bears greater responsibility.

For the purpose of this study, leadership will be viewed from two perspectives in their relation to the retention of women: 1) leadership styles and 2) leadership opportunities presented to women. Each perspective is explained briefly.

Leaders have been found to have a great influence on the workplace attitudes and behaviours of employees and organisations as a whole (Burton & Hoobler, 2011). The relationship of employees with their leaders is one of the most significant relationships in their lives because it has a direct effect on their psychological and emotional wellbeing (Thau, Troster, Aquino, Pillutla, & De Cremer, 2013). Also, considering the amount of time that is spent at work, the health of this relationship is essential for employee satisfaction and motivation. Leadership also has an ethical dimension, which relates to the behaviour that leaders should display and the interpersonal relationships they form with their employees through two-way communication, reinforcement and decision making. This means that leaders should act consistently with general expectations and behave in a fair, honest, principled and trustworthy manner (Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog & Folger, 2010). Bearing in mind the critical role leadership plays in the wellbeing of employees, and in particular in employees' decision to remain with the organisation, this study focuses on the extent to which leadership styles and the type of behaviour displayed by leaders influence women's intentions to remain with the organisation. It should also be noted that different styles affect working women in different ways, depending on circumstances unique to each woman, i.e. marital status, number of children, etc.

As can be seen from the above, leaders are critical to organisations, as they are directly responsible for levels of employee engagement and motivation (Batista-Taran, Shuck, Gutierrez & Baralt, 2009). Without the correct type of leadership, employees could experience lower levels of engagement with their organisation, and this in turn could lead to increased turnover. In a recent study it was found that a certain type of leadership style can reduce an employee's intention to leave by changing his/her organisational identification (Liu, Li, Cai & Fang, 2013). Different leadership theories and styles will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs to provide an overview of some of the concepts that were examined in this study to determine how leadership affects the retention of women in higher education.

In order to fully understand a concept, one must go back to the basics. In the case of leadership, this refers to the relevant theories that have been proposed over the years. There are three focal theories that are prominent in leadership research. Robbins and Judge (2015) have identified these as trait, behaviour and contingency theories. Each one has a different focus for explaining leadership. Trait theories use the simplified view that leaders possess common traits that others do not (Robbins & Judge, 2015). Traits known as the top qualities that make a great leader include vision, confidence, interpersonal skills, ability to inspire, responsibility, integrity, sense of humour, commitment and intuition. Robbins and Judge explain that behaviour theories also take on a simple view that leaders display certain universal behaviours. Contingency theorists, however, find these oversimplified views as lacking key factors and note that leadership is influenced by the situation, so that different styles are appropriate under different circumstances (Robbins & Judge, 2015). Under each of these overarching theories, sub-theories have emerged. These are identified in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1: Leadership Theories**

TRAIT THEORIES	BEHAVIOURAL THEORIES	CONTINGENCY THEORIES
Based on traits of leaders	Lewin studies	Fiedler's Contingency Theory
	Ohio State studies	Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory
	University of Michigan studies	Path-Goal Theory
	Managerial/Leadership Grid	Leader-Member Exchange Theory

*Source: Adapted from Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2015; Roe, 2014; Yukl, 2013.*

From Table 1.1 it can be noted that, as older theories were examined, newer theories emerged to address the issues that were lacking in previous research. The contingency theories provide detailed discussions of leadership styles and practices. Each of these studies will be examined in greater detail in the chapter dedicated to the study of leadership.

Theories then gave rise to more recent developments in leadership styles. These can be identified as transformational leadership, transactional leadership and charismatic leadership (Quick & Nelson, 2013). There are distinct characteristics that define these leadership styles

and differentiate them from one another. Quick and Nelson (2013) explain that transformational leaders enthuse and motivate their followers to increased levels of performance and do not rely on their official positions, while transactional leaders are the complete opposite and use their official position to achieve success by using rewards and punishments on their followers. Charismatic leaders use their own personal talents and skills to have a deep effect on their followers (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Other issues that have emerged from the research are authentic leadership, which places emphasis on the integrity and moral standing of leaders, and servant leadership, which is based on the needs of the followers (Cutler, 2014; Roe, 2014).

From the above it is evident that there is much to be studied on the issue of leadership. This study will use the information gathered about the different leadership styles to determine which type would achieve the best results for the retention of women in higher education.

The second perspective on leadership that was investigated in this study relates to how the opportunity (or lack thereof) for women to advance to leadership positions will affect their retention. Cho and Huang (2012) have proven that professionals leave organisations for the sake of professional advancement. The absence of growth prospects can leave employees feeling dissatisfied and ultimately result in them leaving the organisation, while the presence of such prospects will strengthen the bond between an employee and the organisation (Boyar, Valk, Maertz Jr & Sinha, 2011). Unfortunately, history has shown that women are usually not offered the chance to get ahead, while men rise to the top at an astounding pace. These phenomena are known as the “glass ceiling” and the “glass escalator” respectively (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). The glass ceiling represents a plateau that women reach at some point in their careers when they are unable to advance any further. As a testament to the glass ceiling theory, and of practical significance to the current study, it is reported that women are still underrepresented in the top academic positions worldwide (Reed, Enders, Lindor, McClees & Lindor, 2011).

According to Amondi (2011), women have demonstrated clearly that they are competent to be effective leaders, but this has not changed the trend of not fully recognising their value in the workplace. Some of the challenges that have been highlighted in a recent article on the online forum, Workplace Fairness (2014), are the following:

- Most women still continue to work in jobs that are stereotyped as female jobs and receive less pay than men.
- Women face limits in promotion to managerial positions and they continue to experience sexual harassment (despite increased employer awareness of an employer's obligation to implement preventive measures).
- Employers continue to disregard the unique needs of women with family care responsibilities.
- Women from previously disadvantaged groups are in an even worse position, as they face a combination of racial and gender barriers.

Taking into account the crucial role of women in society, it is now time to close the gap in terms of representation of women in leadership positions. However, this is a tough feat to accomplish, since the status quo is maintained due to the ingrained belief that women should not be leaders (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2013). Therefore a new developmental agenda to represent women in leadership is required. The need to grow, develop and advance is inherent in every person, male or female, but unfortunately the opportunity to progress is not always present. In the past, women were not given the opportunity to be leaders; however as diversity and equal employment equity issues have come to the fore in recent years, new opportunities are being made available. This increases women's desire to embrace the concept of women leaders. Therefore, this study aimed to explore the importance of advancement into leadership positions for women.

Women form an essential part of any workforce. They bring with them a wealth of experience and knowledge. McGinty (2010) states that women are a source of brain power that is underutilised. Therefore, the retention and advancement of women should be of the utmost importance to every organisation. With the dual roles that women play in the home and work spheres, they are in desperate need of some form of balance. If organisations know what women value at work to help them balance work and life, they can implement strategies that are consistent with this and thereby retain and develop women as a key resource.

### **1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT/PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH**

From the preceding background it can be established that women make up a significantly large portion of the talent pool in South Africa. In the context of higher education, the numbers of

female academics are on the rise and they are contributing extensively in many fields, but there still is a long way to go until women are on an equal footing to men. This calls for employee retention research that focuses primarily on women.

With regard to the leadership perspective of the study, it is not clear whether the type of leader that a woman works for has any influence on her satisfaction with her job and intention to leave. It is also not clear whether women can advance easily into leadership positions, and whether this impacts on their decision to leave the organisation.

Unfortunately, the number of women leaving organisations or the labour force altogether is alarming. The main problem encountered by organisations is the loss of such an important source of talent. Therefore, the purpose of the research was to make recommendations for the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective.

The researcher chose the overall context of higher education due to the crucial nature of its business operations. Higher education provides individuals with skills, competence and confidence to succeed in their personal and professional lives. To effectively accomplish this task, the best people must be retained and nurtured by the higher education institutions that they serve. As stated above, women have infiltrated the higher education domain after years of being excluded from this elite field. However, there still remains a gender inequality gap that must be addressed (Machika, 2014). With the purpose of nurturing women as an essential resource, organisations need to make every effort to sustain and retain women for as long as possible. By doing so, organisations will reap the rewards of higher productivity, lower levels of turnover and a committed workforce (Harvard Business School Press, 2013).

In order to retain women in organisations, the reasons why they would stay or leave should be examined. This information can only be derived from the unit under analysis, namely women. By analysing women's perceptions concerning retention factors (such as leadership and work-life balance), this study will be able to make a valid contribution towards the knowledge base of this subject area. This knowledge can then be used by organisations to implement retention strategies that are consistent with women's true perceptions as obtained through empirical research. The retention of women should be an objective of all companies. Unfortunately, it seems as if organisations are implementing strategies that are not in harmony with women's needs. The reason for this could only be that they do not know what women value.

With reference to the above, the purpose of the research was to determine what women perceive as important to remain with an organisation. This research also determined how leadership influences the retention of women in organisations.

The results obtained from women with various biographical details were also examined to determine if there are any differences between them which are worthy of being noted.

The specific research questions for the study are formulated as follows:

### **1.3.1 Research Questions: Literature Review**

Relating to the problem mentioned above, the following research questions are addressed in the literature review:

- What is the role of women in higher education in South Africa in the overall context of the new world of work as conceptualised in the literature?
- Are women provided with leadership opportunities and does this affect their decision to remain with the organisation?
- How are leadership and leadership styles conceptualised in the literature?
- How is retention conceptualised in the literature, and what are the retention factors that have been identified in the literature?

### **1.3.2 Research Questions: Empirical Study**

In relation to the empirical study, the following specific research questions were addressed:

- Which factors affect the retention of women in higher education?
- How do leadership styles of supervisors affect the retention of women?
- How important are leadership opportunities to the retention of women?
- Are there statistical differences in the factors that affect retention among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels?
- Based on the findings of the research study, what recommendations could be made for retention strategies and the subject field of human resource management?

## 1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

In general terms, the primary aim of the research was to determine which factors affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

This knowledge was used to provide recommendations for employment practices that will aid in the retention of women. The results of the study were used to make recommendations for the field of human resource management and, more specifically, for retention strategies used in organisations.

### 1.4.1 Specific Aims

In this section, the specific aims of both the literature review and the empirical study are discussed.

#### *1.4.1.1 Literature review*

The specific aims of the literature review are listed below:

**Research aim 1:** Conceptualise the role of women in higher education in South Africa in the overall context of the new world of work.

**Research aim 2:** Explore the concept of women's advancement into leadership positions and describe the challenges that they face.

**Research aim 3:** Conceptualise the concept of leadership and leadership styles as discussed in the literature.

**Research aim 4:** Conceptualise the concept of retention and the retention factors discussed in the literature.

#### *1.4.1.2 Empirical study*

The specific aims of the empirical study are listed below:

**Research aim 1:** To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

**Research aim 2:** To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

**Research aim 3:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.

**Research aim 4:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.

**Research aim 5:** To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

**Research aim 6:** To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management regarding retention strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of the research.

### **1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN**

A research design is simply the plan for the intended research (Mouton, 2001). This encompasses the complete research process, including data collection methods and analysis (Hart, 2005). Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) state that a research design is much like a strategic framework. Creswell (2009) links research questions with the actual implementation of the research. The framework for the research is discussed in the following paragraphs.

In order to achieve the research aims, a quantitative survey design was chosen for the purpose of this study. In a quantitative study, researchers use theory to explain or predict relationships

(Creswell, 2009; Punch, 2014). Quantitative research is also classified as a more structured approach to research and involves exploring relationships, confirming theories or quantifying problems (Kumar, 2014). A cross-sectional survey design was used for the research. Such studies are known to be helpful in providing an overall view, or 'big picture', of the research topic at the time the study is conducted (Kumar, 2014). The focus of the research was on descriptive, correlation and inferential statistical analysis.

The empirical aspect of this study utilised a survey to collect primary quantitative data. This was in the form of self-administered electronic questionnaires. An advantage of using self-administered questionnaires is that they are cost and time efficient, although they must be self-explanatory and easy to understand (De Vaus, 2002; Salkind, 2012). Another reason for the use of self-reported data is that this type of design is well suited to the study of a large population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). When surveys are administered to a sample of a population, the results can be generalised to the entire population if a representative sample is used (Salkind, 2012).

The type of research that this study encompassed was descriptive and exploratory. Descriptive research aims to accurately provide a description of a situation or phenomenon (Johnson & Christensen, 2016). This was done in the literature review when each construct was conceptualised. Exploratory research was used to make initial enquiries into unknown areas (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The limited research that has been conducted on this topic is one of the reasons why it was chosen.

### **1.5.1 Methods Used to Ensure Validity and Reliability**

The validity and reliability of the study had to be ensured in order for it to be effective. The following measures were in place to meet these requirements.

#### *1.5.1.1 Validity*

A measuring instrument is valid if it measures the construct that it claims to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Internal and external validity are very important and are required for the accuracy and quality of a research design; for this reason, both types must be maximised as far as possible (McDermott, 2011). Internal validity indicates that, with regard to a specific

phenomenon, the research generates precise and valid findings (Salkind, 2012). External validity indicates the extent to which the results of the study can be generalised to larger populations and environments (Salkind, 2012; Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

In this research, the internal validity was ensured in the following ways:

- The literature review was structured according to theories relating to the current study that were relevant to the research topic, problem statement and research aims.
- Measuring instruments were chosen in a responsible and representative manner, presented in a standardised method and eliminated the influence of extraneous variables.

The external validity was ensured in the following ways:

- The selection of the sample was representative of the total population.
- The findings of the research were generalised to include the total population.

The validity of the data gathering instrument was ensured as follows:

- Exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to ascertain the construct validity and internal consistency reliability of the new measuring instrument that was developed for the purposes of this study.
- In order to ensure content validity, an effort was made to ensure that the data collection was carried out meticulously, that the data was coded accurately and analysed correctly, and that the findings were based on the analysed data.
- The processing of statistics was carried out by an expert, using the most current computer package.
- The reporting and interpreting of results was accomplished using standardised procedures.
- The researcher ensured that the final conclusions, implications and recommendations were based on the findings of the research.

#### *1.5.1.2 Reliability*

A measuring instrument is reliable if the instrument is able to provide consistent measures (Kumar, 2014). In simple terms, reliability refers to obtaining the same or similar results using

the same instrument under the same or similar conditions by collecting the same or similar information at a different point in time. The reliability of an instrument is of vital significance, as it refers to the credibility of the measuring instrument, which ultimately refers to the credibility of the entire research project (Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). In order to ensure the reliability of the measuring instrument, the Cronbach's alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients were used (Salkind, 2012). The Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that measures the internal consistency of a scale, whereas correlation coefficients measure the amount of association between two variables (Nisber, Elder & Miner, 2009; Salkind, 2012; Welman et al., 2005). The reliability of the study was increased further by using existing literature sources in the literature review and by the use of a representative sample.

### **1.5.2 Unit of Analysis**

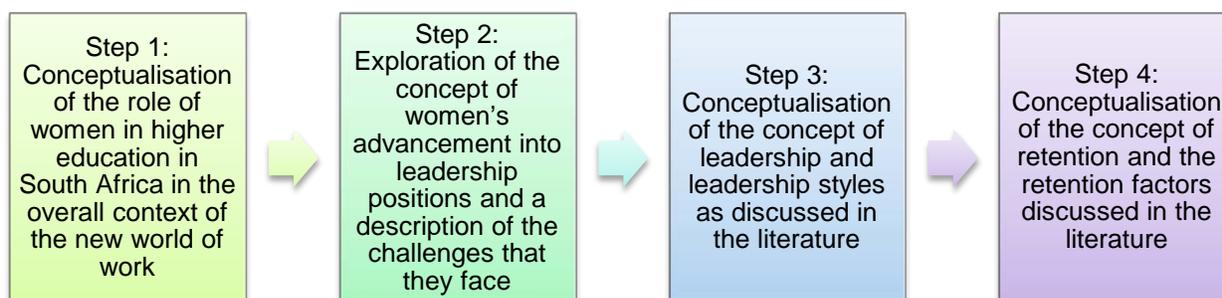
The unit of analysis refers to the units in which variables are measured, and these could fall into any of the following categories: individuals, groups, organisations or society. In this study, the unit of analysis was on the individual level. Working women represent the unit of analysis in this study, as the primary aim was to examine their views on retention factors and the role leadership plays in the retention of women.

## **1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

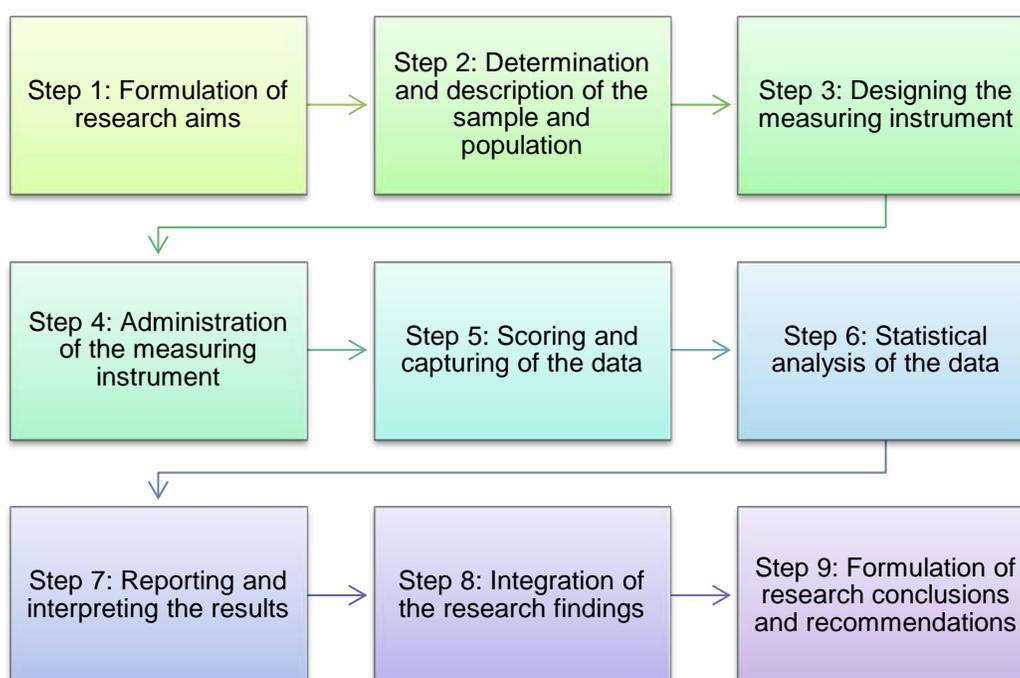
As previously stated, the plan of this specific research was to follow a quantitative design approach. According to Kumar (2014), some of the characteristics of quantitative designs are that they are well-structured, specific, valid and reliable. Quantitative designs are used as a deductive process of investigating objectives that have already been set (Weathington, Cunningham & Pittenger, 2010).

The research method included both the literature review as well as the empirical study. The literature review was used to obtain in-depth information on the theoretical background of the research, and the empirical study was used for the practical application of the theory in order to investigate objectives. These two phases of the research process are discussed in greater detail in the paragraphs to follow. Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the research methodology applied in this study.

## PHASE ONE



## PHASE TWO



**Figure 1.1: Overview of Research Methodology**

### Phase One: Literature Review

The literature review provides the theoretical background, findings of previous studies, how the theory relates to the research and, lastly, how the research adds to the existing body of knowledge (Kumar, 2014). In this instance, the literature review served to conceptualise women in higher education, leadership and retention.

The steps that were followed in this phase of the research are shown in Figure 1.1.

## **Phase Two: Empirical Study**

This phase included the following steps:

Step 1: Formulation of research aims

The research aims were formulated in order to determine the appropriate statistical analyses.

Step 2: Determination and description of the sample

The population was identified and the sample was determined by means of simple random sampling, which is a probability sampling technique. A breakdown of this process and the description of the sample can be found in Chapter 5.

Step 3: Designing the measuring instrument

Measuring instruments assess aspects of human thought or behaviour, must be valid and reliable and are very important, as they provide the basis on which the complete study effort rests (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

After a review of the literature, a suitable questionnaire had not been identified. Therefore the researcher compiled a questionnaire specifically suited to this study.

The questionnaire comprises three sections (A, B and C); the first asks for the biographical details of the participants, the second assesses leadership from two perspectives (leadership styles and leadership opportunities), and the third section assesses general factors that could impact on the retention of women (from an organisational and personal perspective). The questionnaire is attached as Appendix A.

Step 4: Administration of the measuring instrument

The researcher approached the tertiary institution's Departmental Research and Ethics Committee and the Institutional Research Committee of the university to obtain permission to conduct the study. Once permission was granted, an email was sent to all women in the sample with a link to the web-based questionnaire. Confidentiality was ensured at all times.

Step 5: Scoring and capturing of the data

The responses of all the participants were captured in an electronic spreadsheet. All data was analysed through statistical analysis. This was done by using a statistical package, SPSS, which is meant specifically for the field of Social Sciences.

Step 6: Statistical analysis of the data

The statistical analysis was conducted in various stages. As stated previously, the statistical computer program SPSS was used to analyse the data. The stages are briefly discussed below:

Stage 1: An exploratory factor analysis of the questionnaire was conducted. According to Field (2013), this technique serves three purposes: (1) to understand the structure of a group of variables, (2) to construct a questionnaire to measure an underlying variable, and (3) to reduce a data set while at the same time to retain original information. In this study, all three of these purposes were served.

Stage 2: In order to apply the appropriate statistical procedures, categorical and frequency data (means and standard deviations) were determined for the total sample. This helped in the assessment of the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instrument. Descriptive statistics such as the Cronbach's alpha were utilised.

Stage 3: Correlation statistics using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient were used to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the leadership and retention variables (Field, 2013).

Stage 4: Inferential statistics were used to further examine the relationship between the variables. Inferential statistics is concerned with inferences about the data. The

proportion of variance in the dependent variable (retention) that is explained by the independent variable (leadership) was calculated and investigated.

Stage 5: ANOVA, independent sample t-tests and the non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test were employed to test for significant mean differences between the various socio-demographic groups concerning the variables.

The level of statistical significance was set at  $p \leq 0.05$ ; when applied in research contexts, this provides 95% confidence in the results being accepted.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

Once the results had been analysed, they were presented in tables, diagrams and/or graphs. This included a description of the sample and its representation in terms of the total population. The discussion of the findings is presented in a systematic manner that is clearly understandable. This ensures that the interpretations of the findings are conveyed in a coherent fashion in order to limit ambiguity and confusion.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review.

Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions and recommendations

In this step, conclusions were drawn from the results obtained and from the integration of the results with the theory. This step provided an outline of the research findings, which are the answers to the research questions posed at the outset of the research project. Recommendations were made in terms of retention strategies for organisations with reference to leadership and work-life balance initiatives. The overall contribution of the study was shown and the limitations of the research were then discussed.

## **1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

The research was conducted by adhering to strict ethical guidelines and standards. The ethical procedures and requirements of the institution with regard to research projects were taken into

account. The research ethics procedures of the higher education institution were abided by. Ethical considerations informed every step of the research process. Ethical clearance was obtained from the institution where the research was carried out. The informed and voluntary consent of every participant was required and documented. Confidentiality was ensured throughout the process. No harm or victimisation fell on any person who took part in the research. The researcher remained as objective as possible and used her integrity to guide this research project.

## **1.8 PLAN OF THE RESEARCH/CHAPTER LAYOUT**

The research report consists of seven chapters. The chapters are presented in the following manner:

Chapter 1: Orientation and Background

This chapter concentrates on the purpose of the research and why it was required.

Chapter 2: Women in the Workplace

Chapter 2 addresses two of the aims of the literature study. To introduce the chapter, the new world of work that forms the overall context of the study is explored. Then the role of women in the new world of work was examined, along with the role that women are playing in higher education and in enhancing South Africa's economy. This addressed the first research aim. The chapter then goes on to discuss the dual roles that women assume between work and family, which leads to the dialogue regarding women's advancement into leadership positions, their decision to leave the organisation and the challenges that they face. This discussion focuses on research aim 2 of the literature study. In this chapter, the dire need to retain women is identified.

Chapter 3: Leadership

This chapter explores the concept of leadership by delving into the first theories of leadership and working forward to the most current trends in leadership research. From this assessment of the literature, different leadership styles were identified and analysed for their effectiveness in

retaining the services of female employees. Finally, the chapter concludes with a brief discussion of research regarding women in the field of leadership.

#### Chapter 4: Retention

In the fourth and final literature chapter, the concept that encompasses this study is conceptualised – retention. Thereafter, the factors that affect retention based on previous studies were investigated. The retention factors forming the foundation of the current study are then presented. The chapter offers some insight into best practices in terms of retention strategies used by other organisations.

#### Chapter 5: Research Methodology

This chapter focuses on the empirical aspect of the study. An indication of the population and sampling method is provided. The research methodology presented in this study is implemented, and each step is described and motivated.

#### Chapter 6: Results

Chapter 6 discusses the statistical results of the study. Statistical results are reported in terms of exploratory factor analysis, and descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics. An integration of the empirical findings and the literature review took place once all the results had been reported. A detailed account of the results is presented in this chapter.

#### Chapter 7: Findings and Recommendations

The final chapter integrates the results and provides a justification of the conclusions reached. This chapter signifies whether the purpose of the research was met. Ultimately, recommendations are made for the field of Human Resource Management and retention strategies specifically, both applied and in terms of further research. The contribution of the study is highlighted and the limitations of the study are shown. The chapter ends with concluding remarks.

## **1.9 SUMMARY**

This chapter intends to give the reader an overall idea of the research that has been carried out. Beginning with the rationale and background of the study, the motivation for this study was emphasized. In essence, the entire study is based on the critical role that women play in organisations and the urgent need for organisations to effectively retain and developed their talent and skills. The chapter continued with the problem statement and research aims, the research design, the research methodology and ethical considerations. Finally a plan for the research was shown.

## **CHAPTER 2: WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE**

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### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter creates the foundation of this study. It explores the unit of analysis, which is women, in great detail. The aim of this chapter is to highlight the important role of women in all aspects of life, with specific reference to the workplace. The chapter begins with a brief introduction on the new world of work, which serves as the overall context of this study. The impact of women in this new work order, on the economy of South Africa, and in higher education specifically, will also be considered. This discussion leads to a brief analysis of the challenges that women face in reaching leadership positions and advancing in their careers. Thereafter the multiple roles that women take on in the different spheres of home and work will be examined. The chapter concludes with the problem currently facing organisations, which is the loss of talented women through voluntary departures.

### **2.2 THE NEW WORLD OF WORK**

The twenty-first century has arrived – a new millennium surrounded by innovation and transition. It has certainly brought with it many changes. One of these is the transformation of the work domain. This revolution has coined its own term as the “new world of work” (Maitland & Thompson, 2011). The question that arises is, what characterises this remarkable change in the world of work? There are many factors that contribute to the modification of work as we have come to know it; however, for the purpose of this study, only the two most relevant changes are discussed. These prominent changes are the technological revolution and the transformation of the career. These developments have a direct link to this study and will be explained briefly in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the introduction of new technology and the internet has had an astounding impact on the concept of work and the workplace itself (Burke & Cooper, 2006). Technological advancements have brought with them changes that would previously have been unheard of. The World Wide Web has not only changed how people work, but also how people live (Maitland & Thompson, 2011). In the past the relationship between the functioning of an organisation and technology has been of much academic interest, but it has really come to the fore in the twenty-first century

(Zammuto, Griffith, Majchrzk, Dougherty & Faraj, 2007). The emergence of communication devices that are much more mobile has given rise to dramatic changes in workplaces and work schedules. Workplaces have become more distinct with the rise of the 24/7 economy (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Employees can now be reached at any hour of the day and can conduct their work from anywhere in the world, provided that there is an internet connection. This indicates that organisations are no longer confined to one workplace, one province or even one country.

However, these innovative technological changes have not decreased the workload, and work still demands a great amount of time (Correll, Kelly, O'Conner & Williams, 2014). Employees are expected to make work the top priority, with everything else having to play a secondary role, which calls for organisations or organisational policies that are more in tune with current needs. This had led to the emergence of the 'virtual organisation'. Colky and Young (2006) assert that the proliferation of virtual organisations has changed the world of work in a remarkable way. In its simplest form, a virtual organisation represents organisations whose employees are geographically separated, but who unite and work together through the use of technology (Colky & Young, 2006).

The availability of virtual technologies has led to more organisations giving employees the option to telecommute or work flexible hours. A flexible work arrangement (FWA) is the term used to encompass flexibility in place as well as time (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz & Shockley, 2013). Flexibility in place makes it possible for employees to work from an alternate workplace, which is usually the home (but not necessarily). This type of arrangement is known as telecommuting or working from home. Flexibility in time makes it possible for individuals to choose different working hours. There are a number of different options available under this category, such as compressed work week, flexitime, and part-time work (Masuda et al., 2012). Golden (2008) has reported that employees highly value the option of flexibility in the choice of workplace and working hours. This is made evidently clear by the fact that this 'mobile' workforce, as it has come to be known, is growing larger each year (LaBrosse, 2007). Many people are drawn to the concept of flexibility and the 'nine-to-five' job is becoming a thing of the past.

The advantages of flexible work arrangements are not only applicable to employees, but rewards for organisations are also on the cards. Studies have shown that these arrangements are related to lower turnover intentions, lower work-family conflict and higher job satisfaction (Allen, 2001; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Masuda et al., 2012). These findings are highly

positive and create a remarkable motivation for the implementation and use of flexible work arrangements within organisations.

The most enticing aspect of workplace flexibility, however, is that it increases work-life balance (Allen et al., 2012). People are now able to structure their time to suit individual needs, which differ vastly from one person to another. The need to balance work and family responsibilities is a universal issue and it is not specific to only one industry or country. This is one of the reasons for the increased interest in this specific area in recent years. However, as with every aspect of life, there are drawbacks to the advancements of technology and the implementation of flexible arrangements. Jones, Burke and Westman (2013) draw attention to the fact that technological advancements have made it simpler for work needs to impose on family and personal time. This makes it very difficult to separate the two domains and to give one's full attention to either work or family. This point will be explored in greater detail further on in this chapter.

The second change in the new world of work that provides a context for this study is the transformation from the traditional career to the boundaryless and protean career. The traditional career involves developing and advancing within one or two companies throughout the entire duration of one's career (Sullivan, 1999). This means that talented employees would remain loyal to the companies that they worked for and the retention of talent was not a critical issue. In the past, careers were seen as predictable and secure, moving only in one direction. However, this is no longer the case, since the new-age career is seen as dynamic and multidirectional (Baruch, 2006). In simple terms, this transformation indicates that careers are now unpredictable. Due to this trend, retention has become a burning topic for organisations and human resource departments alike.

The concept of a boundaryless career was identified in 1996 by Arthur and Rousseau in their book, *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Economic Era*. Since then it has gained widespread attention (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Table 2.1 provides a breakdown of the fundamental principles of the Boundaryless Career as stated by Arthur and Rousseau (1996):

**Figure 2.1: Principles of the Boundaryless Career**

BOUNDARYLESS CAREER	
1	Moves across boundaries of different employers
2	Validation is obtained externally and not only from the present employer
3	The career is sustained through networks outside of the organisation
4	Traditional organisational boundaries are broken
5	Career opportunities could be rejected due to family or personal choices
6	Leads to a boundaryless future without structural constraints.

*Source: Adapted from Arthur & Rousseau, 1996*

From Table 2.1 it is clear that, with this new type of career, employees do not feel a strong commitment to staying with one organisation. The rules have changed and employees are free to pursue careers without considering the boundaries of structure and tradition. The defining characteristic of this type of career is employees' mobility across organisations, in contrast to staying with one organisation (Segers, Inceogle, Vloeberghs & Henderickx, 2008). There is no longer a stigma attached to a person who changes jobs or companies, which is shown in the fact that both men and women currently are making more shifts in their careers than were made in previous centuries (Ackah & Heaton, 2004). People are pursuing individual goals intensely without a strong concern for organisational commitment. This suggests that employees will much more likely leave an organisation to advance their own careers than to remain with an organisation where advancement is unlikely. Enache, Sallan, Simo and Fernandez (2013) have arrived at a similar conclusion by noting that organisational commitment may not be as important to individuals with a boundaryless career mind-set.

The protean career has also evolved as a concept and focuses on the needs of the employee over the needs of the organisation. The concept of the protean career was first introduced by Hall (1996), who explains that this is a new type of career that is managed by an individual and not by the organisation. The protean career focuses on the employee as a proactive initiator of his/her own career (Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh & Roper, 2012). Individuals are no longer constrained to staying with one organisation or one employer for the rest of their lives. Instead, individuals are now given greater responsibility and control over their career decisions and future. They are able to choose and pursue a career based on their personal aspirations and desires, and not one based on organisational requirements (Grimland, Vigoda-Gadot & Baruch,

2012). This shift in careers is highly empowering to employees, but could leave organisations and employers at a loss with regard to talented individuals.

The information provided in this section on the proliferation of technology, the consequent changes in the world of work, as well as the change in the types of careers, is very important with regard to the retention of employees. The developments of the new world of work have tremendously increased the need to retain talented employees. Organisations will have to try harder than ever before to sustain and nourish their human resources. Individuals of the twenty-first century are in better control of their careers. They will not consider loyalty to an organisation as a top priority, unless they are given a reason to stay. These individuals are not constrained by boundaries as were workers from previous generations; they see the world as their oyster and will use every opportunity to advance. Organisations must be active in their role of talent retention, or be prepared to suffer negative consequences if they do not have a retention strategy in place. Organisations that recognise the importance of talent retention now have greater options available to them to help achieve this goal. The innovative changes of the technological environment in which the world of work now operates have changed the dynamics of the workplace and working hours. Organisations should use these changes to their advantage by offering flexible work arrangements as a retention initiative.

The new world of work forms the background to and context from which this study was conducted. Although this context is important for the retention of talent in general, and is not particular to either gender, the reason why the retention of women specifically is of high importance is explained in the following sections.

### **2.3 WOMEN IN THE NEW WORLD OF WORK**

The world is changing, progressing, moving forward. One of the most important contributing factors to this is the role of women and their evolution in the world of work. In the past, a women's place was said to be at home, if not in the kitchen. However, this trend is changing dramatically. In many countries the labour force participation rate of women has increased in the last century (Euwals, Knoef & Van Vuuren, 2011). In the United States of America, 57% of women were in the labour force in 2015 (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015). In South Africa the rate of labour force participation of women in 2016 is at a promising 51.4% (Statistics South Africa, 2016). This development is highly motivating for women worldwide, and the emergence

of women in the labour market will certainly change the way organisations compile policies and approach work. The presence of this new talent increases the need for organisations to cater for the needs of a diverse workforce.

Across the world, a substantial number of women are entering the workplace (Terjesen & Singh, 2008). This is the beginning of a new century, with changes in the representation of the workforce. The increased number of women entering the workforce is expected to continue for the foreseeable future (Toossi, 2012). Women will now account for a larger portion of the workforce and their needs will have to be examined. Although these statistics cast a positive light on the future of women in the economy, there is still much more to be taken into consideration, as will be discussed in the rest of the chapter.

Davidson and Burke (2011) noted that one of the prominent reasons for the increase in female employees is the change in attitudes towards working women, especially women with children. There is no longer a stigma attached to a woman leaving her children at home to pursue a career. In recent years, this has led to an influx of women into the labour market. Women's attitudes towards work have also changed, as they are now able to manage time more effectively due to the global transformation (Mathur-Helm, 2011). This indicates that women are in a better position to pursue a career and lead a healthy family life than ever before. With both options on the table, women no longer have to make a choice between the two.

Another reason for the increase in women workers is that organisations now are required to be more diverse. It should be noted that diversity in an organisational context refers to the differences between employees relating to any characteristic. This could include, but is not limited to, gender, age, race, education, length of service, religion and marital status (Guillaume et al., 2014). With the large number of diversity factors that are present, organisations perhaps may decide that one of the easiest ways to increase and manage diversity is to employ more women.

In addition to the increased awareness of diversity, there has also been an increase in awareness regarding equality and equal rights for men and women. Women have walked a steep and rough road to get to where they are now. This is especially true in South Africa, where women were considered as second-class citizens who were only afforded equal rights with the implementation of the Bill of Rights in the Constitution of South Africa in 1996 (South

African Government, 1996). There is no surprise then that women have been included in the previously disadvantaged category of designated groups in the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA Department of Labour, 1998). This Act stipulates that affirmative action measures should be implemented to rectify the disadvantages in employment practices experienced by the designated groups (Nel, Kirsten, Swanepoel, Erasmus & Jordaan, 2016). The institution of this Act has provided women with equal opportunities and a better chance of success in the working world in South Africa. However, the need to counter the effects of the past cannot happen overnight and women are still fighting to win this battle on a daily basis. The Act is a move in the right direction, but a lot of work still needs to be done, since women are only entering a race that men have been leading for years.

There is evidence in the literature that suggests that the most successful organisations will be those that nurture and retain the talents of their female workers (O'Neil, Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008). By doing so, organisations will possess the best pool of human resources available. This is no different in South Africa, as research conducted by Deloitte proposes that women are the next source of economic growth, as they have established that there is a direct link between an increase in women in the workforce and an increase in National Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Deloitte, 2011). This statement should be enough to urge organisations to manage this unique source of talent effectively. Under perfect conditions, talent should not be seen as either male or female, but as a gender-neutral construct.

Organisations that employ more women, especially in senior positions, will reap the rewards. Tarr-Whelan (2009) has identified advantages that organisations will benefit from if more women are employed and retained:

1. Increased profits and increased risk awareness
2. Policies that add value to society and individuals
3. A solid integration between work and family life, which leads to higher productivity
4. Long-term planning and a higher commitment to corporate responsibility
5. Management that accurately mirrors the twenty-first century

From the above it is evident that women occupy a significant position in the new world of work, and there is a great incentive for organisations to value their female employees, as doing so can lead to organisation-wide success in the form of higher profit margins and productivity.

Davidson and Burke (2011) suggest that by championing women in organisations it would increase an organisation's appeal in the eyes of other female employees, clients and customers. Men would also see the worth of women more clearly. In addition, by supporting individuals based on their talents rather than gender will ensure that managerial jobs will be filled with the best that the talent pool has to offer (Davidson & Burke, 2011). Tansley, Kirk and Tietze (2013) say that talent management is of great relevance, but there is much research that should be added to this field. The current 'war for talent' has become a global craze that has gained popularity since the 1990s (Minbaeva & Collings, 2013). The retention of women as a critical talent resource is of extreme importance, especially at the present time, when talent management is such a fervent issue.

Women make up half of the labour force in South Africa and it would have disastrous consequences for organisations if their needs were excluded. The effects of losing talented employees are very costly to companies. Turnover can direct an organisation towards many damaging outcomes, such as the immediate loss of firm-specific human capital, the interruption of firm functions and operations, the cost of training and induction of newcomers and the increase in recruitment and selection fees (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011).

These are only a few of the benefits of nurturing and retaining women in organisations. These benefits emphasise the role and relevance of women in the workplace and the urgent need to put measures in place to retain the services of women.

## **2.4 WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

The new world of work forms the general context of this study. However, in more specific terms, the higher education industry shapes the backdrop to this research. The researcher has chosen this specific industry because of its importance in enriching society and individuals alike.

South Africa is a country with a complicated past. Even though the country has achieved democracy and freedom, its past will continue to be a burden for the foreseeable future. It is highly unfortunate, but also seemingly unavoidable, that the higher education industry was and still is affected by the inequalities and unfairness of the apartheid era. South African higher education was influenced by economic, political and social pressures that led to discrimination and inequity with regard to race, class and gender (Badat, 2010). There have been many

transformation initiatives since 1994 with the aim of making an impact on institutional change. To assist with the transformation process, the South African Constitution of 1996 (South African Government, 1996), the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 (SA Department of Education, 1997b) and the Education White Paper 3 (SA Department of Education, 1997a) were promulgated. With specific reference to this study, South Africa's historical background is important because women particularly were treated unjustly and denied many opportunities. It therefore is hoped that the next generation of academics will be comprised of women and black people in order to counter the effects of the past, where the representation of these groups in South African academia was minimal (Badat, 2010). In line with this, Higher Education South Africa (HESA) has undertaken to propagate and support the development of the next generation of academics in South African higher education (Higher Education South Africa, 2011). The focus is placed on the 'next' generation and not on a 'new' generation, where the next generation involves individuals who are currently not academics or not necessarily inclined towards academia.

As a result of these employment equity initiatives, the higher education system has undergone dramatic transformative changes in post-democratic South Africa (Boshoff & Bosch, 2012). These changes have been made to put a system in place that is reflective of the demographics of the country it serves. This view is supported by Kruss (2004), who has indicated that, since 1994, South African education policy has been strongly predisposed by a worldwide demand that training and education offered by tertiary institutions must become more receptive to the needs of all key role players in order to ensure economic and social success. In addition to this, Winberg (2006) has pointed out that higher education institutions in South Africa are being advocated to produce knowledge that is more relevant to the social and economic needs of the country. By enduring this transformation, South African higher education institutions have begun to make a name for themselves globally, with the University of Cape Town making it onto the top 150 universities in the Times Higher Education World University Rankings (Times Higher Education, 2016).

The economy of a country depends largely on the quality of its resources, specifically its human resources. It therefore is critical that the cultivation of a well-educated workforce is the top priority for South Africa, as this will lead to a knowledge-based economy (Kruss, 2004). The twenty-first century has become synonymous with the 'knowledge society', and efforts to optimise on this are essential for economic growth (Kishun, 2007). The development of people

should be the top priority of every country, and the best way to do this is through education. The esteemed and noteworthy political activist and previous president of South Africa – Tata Nelson Mandela – stood testament to this fact when he said that “education is the most powerful weapon we can use to change the world” (Mandela, 2012). Education is indeed a weapon that can be used to improve lives, increase and create knowledge, sustain families and develop a country. Universities are seen as vital and successful channels to achieve socio-economic development (Assié-Lumumba, 2006). Using universities and institutes of higher learning should be a strategic plan for South Africa to improve the economy and to compete on a global scale. The outcome of education is knowledge, which has become the primary initiator of wealth globally and the foundation for the promotion of high-level skills that are essential for a developing country such as South Africa (Kishun, 2007). If higher education is managed and invested in correctly, coupled with the emergence of a skilled workforce and an increase in economic wealth, South Africa can lead the way for other developing countries.

In a paper commissioned by the UNESCO Forum on Higher Education, Research and Knowledge, Assié-Lumumba (2006) draws attention to the assertion that higher learning institutions are a miniature version of society and its fundamental differences. Simply put, this means that institutions of higher learning are strongly linked to society as we know it. The inequalities that are present in the broader society will undeniably be present in these institutions. This includes the relations between gender and society, and specifically the gender imbalance, as it is known. Higher education does not differ from other industries with regard to the underrepresentation of women – statistics have indicated that women are consistently being understated in teaching, research and high-level administrative positions in higher education institutions (Assié-Lumumba, 2006).

As with every organisation, the quality of the work produced depends largely on the quality of the workforce. South African higher education is no different. In a recent report entitled *The SABPP Women’s Report 2012*, an entire chapter is dedicated to women in South African academia (Boshoff & Bosch, 2012). It shows that women in the academic arena are of utmost importance. For this chapter of the report, the SABPP conducted and analysed research on the representation of women in academia in South Africa. Boshoff and Bosch (2012) write that the first fact highlighted in the report is the important role that academics play in serving the needs of society. This is supported by the statement that the capacity of South Africa to compete on a global scale is directly influenced by the calibre and number of academics in the higher

education system. The report goes on to state that greater involvement of female academics will have a vast impact on not only the composition of the workforce, but also on the structure of organisations and the future of society as a whole (Boshoff & Bosch, 2012). Unfortunately, women are not as well represented in academia as one would hope. In addition, once women have achieved their doctorates, their chances of receiving a professorship are much lower than those of men with the same qualification. This is highly disturbing, as the criteria followed should be the same for both genders. At this stage in academia, most women reach the glass ceiling and cannot progress any further. In addition, during their child-bearing years, many women reach a career plateau or take a career break. Women may remain in the same position for a number of years, work shorter hours or leave their jobs completely as a result of home demands. The report ends with a consideration for HR managers to provide career boosting or supportive strategies in order to help women to break the barriers by which they are bound and hopefully increase the representation of women in the workplace (Boshoff & Bosch, 2012).

The needs of women, specifically in academia, are of great importance, since these women have the possibility of shaping both future men and women alike and have the ability to guide the form and content of knowledge, they are also seen as role models by female students (Lie & Malik, 2012). Unfortunately, due to racism and the patriarchal nature of colonialism and the apartheid era, the South African academic workforce is still predominantly male in gender and white in race (Higher Education South Africa, 2011). This makes it very difficult for women to succeed in this profession. This point is emphasised by the fact that only 24% of women hold professorships or associate professorships in South Africa (Higher Education South Africa, 2011). This has led to lower levels of women with research publications behind their names, and more women employed in mid-level and administrative positions (Ogbogu, 2011). Ward (2014) points out that women have advanced in the academic field, but this advancement, as well as their pursuit of pay equity, has been slow. Escalating the problem even further is that South African universities are already in a state of crisis when it comes to attracting, recruiting and retaining talented academics, whether male or female, since academia is not seen as an attractive career option (Higher Education South Africa, 2011). The Council on Higher Education (2009) maintains that suitable rewards and retention of academic staff are vital for the overall success of academic institutions.

## 2.5 THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION CHOSEN

The university which was chosen as the higher education institution where the research was conducted is an open distance learning institution. It differs from residential universities in that all teaching is conducted through correspondence. Due to the nature of its teaching strategy, it is seen as being more accessible to a greater number of people. Students do not have to engage in studies on a full-time basis and may pursue a full-time permanent career while studying. It is one of the largest of its kind on the continent of Africa and reaches thousands of students (Unisa, 2016a). In the year's pre-democratic South Africa, this institution did not discriminate on the basis of race, as was prevalent in many other institutions in the country. It is one of the only universities in South Africa to have granted access to education to all people, regardless of colour or creed (Unisa, 2016a).

This institution celebrated its 140<sup>th</sup> anniversary in 2013, marking over a century of quality distance education (Unisa, 2015). Despite the fact that it is a very old institution, it does not fail to keep up with the times. In recent years it has taken the initiative to transform along with the digital era. The institution has embraced the changes of the twenty-first century and aims to be a part of the change, and in so doing it has become an open distance e-learning institution (Unisa, 2016a). As a part of this strategy, a new online platform has been created that enables greater student interaction and quicker feedback channels. This makes it possible for the large complement of students – a staggering 350 000 – to gain access to important communication and information. This means that this university accounts for over one third of all South African tertiary student registrations (Unisa, 2015). This is why the staff of this institution are of such vital importance – because they are key contributors to the development of students from all walks of life from across South Africa and internationally.

In a recent paper published by the Department of Higher Education and Training in South Africa, it was determined that this university will no longer be the sole provider of open distance learning as was previously the case (SA Department of Higher Education and Training, 2013). This is a critical time for the institution to prove itself as the best in open distance learning.

The paragraphs above point out that the institution where the research was conducted is indeed a very prominent and integral one in the field of higher education. It is also at a very intricate stage at the moment, which makes the intended research relevant and significant. The need for

such an organisation and others like it to retain top female talent cannot be overemphasised. Management of this university has taken steps to ensure that women are equitably represented in their institution. For instance, in 2015 women made up more than 55% of permanent positions, women in the academic field occupied 41% of professionally qualified and experienced specialists and mid-management roles, including professors and associate professorships, and 21 out of 45 staff in administrative senior management were female (Unisa, 2015).

Bezuidenhout and Cilliers (2011) remark that universities that are capable of attracting and retaining the best human capital will achieve the finest reputation with regard to research. Organisations must understand that striving to be the best in the field can only be achieved with the best resources. This, in turn, is only possible if women are retained and nurtured. Good academics are scarce, which adds to the strategic value of improving retention practices in this regard (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2011). Currently this institution does not officially offer any retention strategies that are aimed specifically at women. However, it does have a good work-life focus and is seen as an employer of choice within the higher education domain (Unisa, 2016b). The research aimed to investigate the perceptions of women working at this university regarding retention strategies, and to use this information to provide recommendations to the institution.

It should be noted that, although the importance of women in academics is highlighted in this section, the researcher understands that a university does not comprise only of the academic sector. Instead, there are numerous other administrative functions that must work in congruence with academia in order to achieve success. Therefore this study did not only focus on academics, but also on women in top management, professional/technical and administrative positions.

The importance of education cannot be stressed enough. However, for education to be successful it must be offered in the best possible manner. In order to do this, the best possible resources must be used. And finally, for this to be accomplished, the best possible people for the job must be retained and nurtured in organisations. This includes both men and women, taking into account their unique needs.

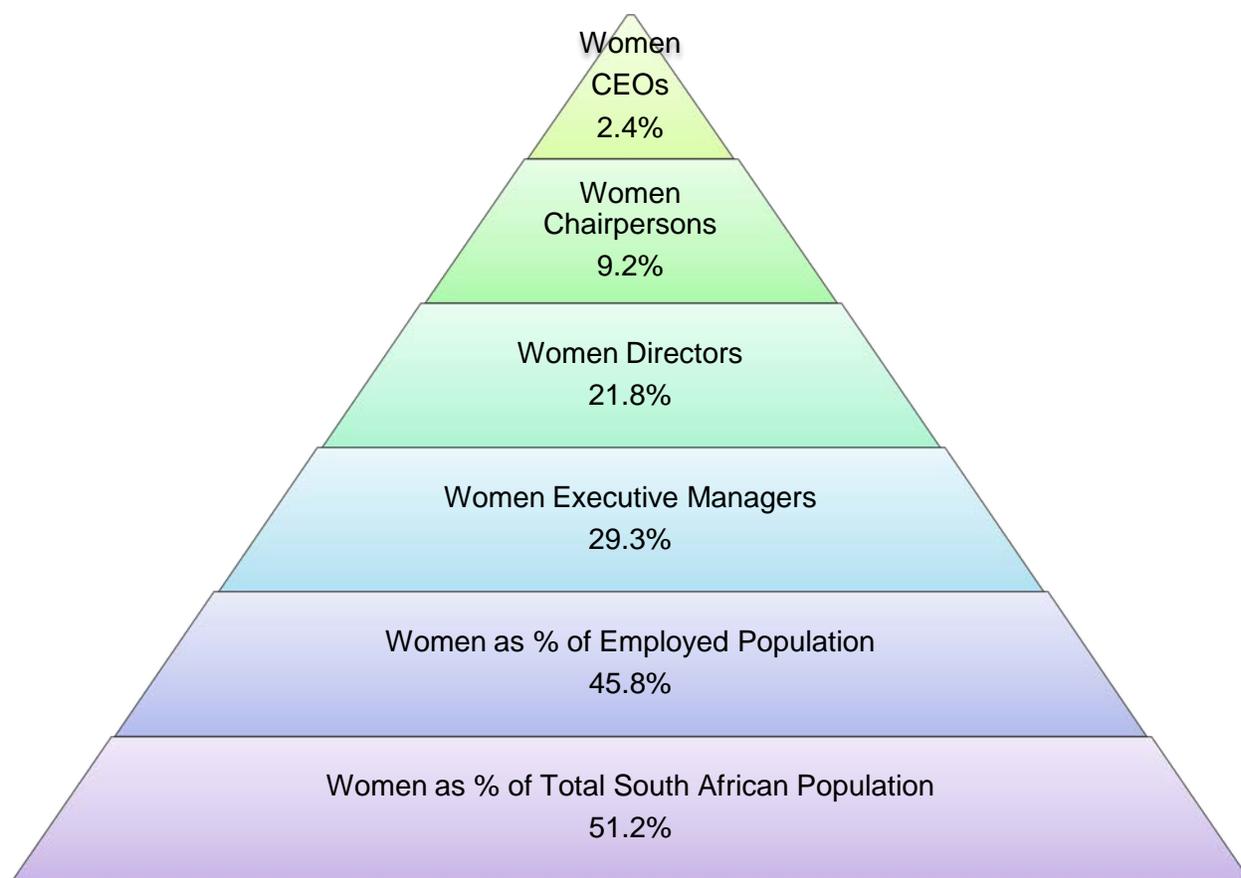
## 2.6 THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN INTO LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Some women are not only entering the workforce but are also emerging as leaders in their chosen fields (Cubillo & Brown, 2003). Burke and Vinnicombe (2005) reflect that there are more women in management and senior level positions than ever before. After decades of being disadvantaged and ignored, women are gradually breaking barriers to make their mark in the world of work. This indicates that women are entering the realm of management, but this unfortunately is taking place at a very slow pace. Hoobler, Lemmon and Wayne (2011) recognise that there are many obstacles to overcome, as women are still underrepresented in top-level leadership positions. This finding is supported by the International Labor Organization's report on Global Employment Trends for Women (International Labor Organization, 2012). South Africa has also seen a rise in the number of women in management, as indicated in the 2012 Women's Report published by the South African Board of People Practices (Boshoff & Bosch, 2012). However, a more recent report published by the same organisation indicates that women's voyage into senior management, which previously was a male-dominated arena, has been far too slow and not on par with expectations, with the added pressure and prevalence of the gender pay gap (Bosch, 2015). This indicates that women are achieving success, but not at the same pace as men nor as fast as anticipated. Climbing the corporate or academic ladder is possible, but there are many challenges to face along the way.

Terjesen and Singh (2008) observe that women are underrepresented on corporate boards of directors all over the world. This view is supported by a number of international studies (Catalyst, 2011; European Board Diversity Analysis, 2010; Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2010), which report that the number of women on boards is negligible and new appointments are not being made at a fast enough rate.

In South Africa, women account for a dismal 2.4% of CEO positions, 9.2% of chairperson positions, 21.8% of directorships and 29.3% of executive management positions (Businesswomen's Association of South Africa, 2015). These statistics were obtained from the 2015 Women in Leadership Census, which covered 293 organisations and are shown in Figure 2.1 for ease of reference. The findings of the census point out that the need for the advancement of women in the twenty-first century is now a matter of urgency – the status quo must be altered, societal structures with regard to gender roles must be more accommodating,

more women must pursue higher level education and more opportunities must be created for women (Businesswomen's Association of South Africa, 2015).



**Figure 2.2: South African Women in Leadership Positions**

*Source: From Businesswomen's Association of South Africa (2015)*

Intensifying the problem of poor representation in leadership positions, women still are being paid less than their male counterparts (Blau & Kahn, 2007; Bosch, 2015). This gender pay gap, as it has come to be known, is a universal problem where women's earnings can be described as a lesser percentage of men's earnings (Lips, 2013). Although the gender pay gap has decreased in scale worldwide, it is still substantially present (Tharenou, 2012). Statistics based on earnings for 150 countries showed that men's earnings exceeded those of women's without any exceptions (United Nations Development Program, 2009). This is disconcerting, considering the fact that pay should be based on skill and definitely not on gender. Even when women and men hold the same or similar qualifications, there is still pay inequality between the genders (Bosch, 2015). Women have prepared and equipped themselves for advancement by gaining

experience and the necessary qualifications, but remain in the backseat with regard to remuneration (Davidson & Burke, 2011). Women are forced to prove themselves over and over again in order to be playing on the same field as their male counterparts. This makes one wonder just how important the opportunity to advance is for women and how far they will go to get there. As explained in Chapter 1, this issue forms one of the research aims of the current study.

One of the outcomes of women's lack of advancement is the notorious 'glass ceiling'. Baumgartner and Schneider (2010) define the glass ceiling as a synthetic barrier usually composed of attitudes that inhibit the advancement of individuals into higher positions in organisations. This implies that an individual will be unable to move above a certain point in the organisation due to this unseen barrier. The glass ceiling applies primarily, however, to women's advancement. This is evident in the definition provided by Le and Miller (2010), which states that women progress only to a certain point in their careers, after which there are limited opportunities. It therefore could be said that the glass ceiling has a gender-based focus (Jackson & O'Callaghan, 2009). This phenomenon is prevalent in organisations in which women are unable to break into the management domain. On the other hand, men are fast tracked into leadership positions, which is known as the 'glass escalator' (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). The difference between the two is striking – where women are powerless to progress further, men are spiralled to the top with minimal effort. It therefore can be established that there is still a vast difference and inequality in the career paths of men and women.

As an extension of the metaphor of the glass ceiling, another interesting phenomenon that is affecting women in the workplace is the presence of the 'glass cliff'. This term was introduced by Ryan and Haslam (2005), who suggest that women who break through the glass ceiling end up on a glass cliff. The glass cliff represents reaching leadership positions that are associated with larger risks and a greater possibility of failure (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). In simple terms, this implies that women who overcome the glass ceiling are appointed into precarious leadership positions in which they are doomed to fail. This could be compared to standing on a cliff with no place to go but down. In another study, the glass cliff is associated with sexism in the workplace (Ryan, Haslam & Postmes, 2007). Women who make it into leadership positions must be aware of this trend and will have to work exceptionally hard to remain there, or succumb to the pressure of these challenges. The leadership perspective of the study has reference here, since

a woman's ability to make it to the top is directly related to the efforts of the organisation to help get her there.

Some of the challenges that women face when trying to advance in the new world of work have been shown. These must be borne in mind for the remainder of this study, especially in the retention section. These findings portray a modest picture of the state of women's advancement in the workplace. The researcher believes that, by exploring the inherent need that women have to grow, develop and lead, women can be effectively retained and will continue to break down barriers, even if this happens only at a slow rate.

## **2.7 THE MULTIPLE ROLES OF WOMEN: WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

The twenty-first century has embraced the presence of women in the workplace. However, this does not mean that women have discarded their roles as wife, mother and homemaker. On the contrary, more women are now playing active roles in both a professional capacity and on a personal level. The multiplicity of the roles that women take on and their impact will be explored in this section.

More women are now likely to work away from the home, and their financial contribution to the household has become a necessity (Shriver, 2009). The rise in the cost of living has made it mandatory for a second income to support the home. In the past century, the number of families in which both partners work has increased (Gordon & Whelan-Berry, 2004). This means that the occurrence of dual-career couples will be more prominent. Rusconi and Heike (2008) describe dual-career couples as people engaged in work-life models where partners are mutually able to select and follow occupations that are suitable for their qualifications and age. Hardill and Wheatley (2010) describe a dual-career household as those households in which each partner holds a post in a managerial, administrative, professional, associated professional or technical occupation, the sort of job that requires a strong commitment and that places demands on an individual. The emphasis here is that these individuals are engaged in careers that place some degree of pressure on their time and constraints on their schedule. These work pressures, together with family demands, are a big issue for individuals of the twenty-first century.

The dual-career couple is a type of partnership that has developed as a result of an increase in education and workforce participation by women in recent years (Abele & Volmer, 2011). This

type of setting definitely changes the roles usually taken on by men and women alike. It has been found that the dual-career couple in part reflects the matter of joint economic benefit, but more so it reflects the shift towards gender role equality. Abele and Volmer (2011) suggest that, when both partners are devoted to their job or career, it is inevitable that the demands of work and life will be in conflict with each other.

There are also other considerations to be taken into account when researching the roles of women in the new century. As Bianchi and Milkie (2010) so adequately point out, families have diverged from tradition; in the twenty-first century, families are not characterised by the customary two-parent family who are married and in a heterosexual relationship, with a male breadwinner and female homemaker. There has been an increase in divorce rates, leading to parents sharing custody, an increase in gay and lesbian relationships and marriages, and in single-parent families (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). The special nature of these circumstances has changed the dynamics of families and, as a result, has had an impact on women entering the workforce. One of the common characteristics of the new types of families is that caring responsibilities have been enhanced and are now multifaceted, which gives rise to a greater sense of conflict between the personal and professional domains (Peolmans, Stepanova & Masuda, 2008). Despite the nature of family circumstances, the fact remains that the roles of women have shifted, and so have their needs.

In the past, it was the norm for men to go to work and for women to look after the children and the home. This sort of thinking is characterised by gender stereotypes that emerge from the traditional roles that women and men have engaged in throughout history (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Traditional gender roles have postulated that men assume the status of breadwinner and take on paid work, while women's priorities are centred on the home and caring for the family (Sweeting, Bhaskar, Benzeval, Prophan & Hunt, 2014). In contrast, the new egalitarian gender roles encourage and promote equality across all spheres (Sweeting et al., 2014). It is now evident that men are no longer the only breadwinners and women are no longer primarily responsible for the household (Perrone, Wright & Jackson, 2009). The time for change has come. Women have entered the labour force and, by so doing, have altered the conventional roles of men and women. Due to deviations from social norms, both women and men now place a higher significance on both their work and family roles (Gordon & Whelan-Berry, 2005). The value of work is now as important to women as it is to men. In the same breath it must be noted that both men and women have taken on the roles of nurturer and provider (Perrone et al.,

2009). This change has had a substantial impact on the world of work. Women are now taking on multiple roles – as wife, mother and caregiver on the one hand, and as employee, businesswoman, socialite and financial contributor on the other. Perrone et al. (2009) have explained that the shifting roles of women and men have inevitably caused a shift in the challenges facing men and women alike. The main challenge experienced in this regard is achieving work-life balance.

The question that arises is how is work-life balance conceptualised in the literature? Due to its vast application, this term cannot be defined in only one way. In the *Encyclopaedia of Quality of Life and Wellbeing Research*, some definitions explain that work-life balance is the capability to achieve work and personal goals, and to attain satisfaction in all domains of life (Bulger, 2014). Other definitions have explained that the emphasis is on the word 'balance', which suggests equal commitment to and satisfaction with work and personal roles (Bulger, 2014). These definitions also point out that balance could be an indication of the lack of conflict between work and life, or a social construct that has been formed between an individual and other people in the different territories of work and life.

The primary emphasis of work-life balance is exactly as the term implies – finding a balance between work and life. However, achieving this is much more complicated than it would seem. Widespread attention has been paid to and ample research has been carried out in this field in recent years (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux & Brinley, 2005; Hogarth, Hasluck, Pierre, Winterbotham & Vivian, 2000). The highlight of this research was its focus on the influence of work roles on family roles and vice versa (Eby et al., 2005). Some researchers believe that inter-role conflict can occur, which suggests that involvement in one role causes incompatibility in other roles (Grice et al., 2007). There is a difference in the types of conflict encountered; work-to-family conflict refers to work demands on family time, while family-to-work conflict refers to the demands of family responsibilities imposing on work activities (Ilies et al., 2007).

This means that the direction of the conflict changes. There are times when work demands will place pressure on an individual's family time, but there will be other times when family responsibilities affect work performance. From this it is also evident and undeniable that the work and life domains are interrelated. Although efforts are made to separate the two, there will always be a connection. It is not surprising then that the consideration of embracing a work

tactic that would assist employees to achieve a balance between work and life has increased over the past few years (Khan & Agha, 2013).

Since there is no universally accepted definition of work-life balance, some of the elements that support work-life balance are identified as flexible work arrangements, personal or family leave and support from the organisation for the need to care for a dependant (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Flexible work arrangements were discussed at the beginning of this chapter, and the link between the technological advancements of the twenty-first century and the retention of women will now come to the fore. In order for organisations to create a good work-life balance for employees, strategies such as flexibility should be endorsed. This brings us back to the proliferation of technology in the new world of work and the fact that organisations are now much better equipped to offer employees these benefits. Family responsibility leave is now enforced by law in South Africa, as stated in the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (SA Department of Labour, 1997). However, this stipulation only allows employees a total of three days' paid leave for the birth of a child, sickness of a child or the death of a close relative per leave cycle. This allocation is very low considering the demands of family and caring responsibilities. It is up to organisations to improve the working conditions of their employees and to provide better family-friendly leave options. Support from the organisation for dependant care, such as that of children or older relatives, is also crucial at a time when such responsibilities have intensified (Peolmans et al., 2008).

Greenhaus, Ziegert and Allen (2012) have recognised that one of the ways to improve work-life balance and diminish work-family conflict is to gain support from organisations. Workplaces that encourage work-life balance initiatives are in high demand. Work-life balance does not only champion advantages for employees, but it also has numerous benefits for organisations. Family-friendly initiatives, as it has come to be known, can have outstanding results for organisations. In a recent study, an organisation with a family-friendly culture resulted in higher work performance among parents (Ten Brummelhuis & Van der Lippe, 2010). In another study, work-life balance practices were linked to improved organisational performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). This is highly appealing, as an increase in performance leads to greater financial returns for organisations. These findings provide an incentive for organisations to implement work-life balance practices.

Supportive initiatives are available at the formal as well as informal level. Formal schemes include on-site or subsidised childcare, maternity leave, elderly care, and flexible work arrangements such as compressed work weeks, telecommuting, flexitime and job-sharing (Jang, Park & Zippay, 2010). Although formal policies are of extreme importance, support can be provided at an informal level as well. This comes in the form of family-supportive supervision, which indicates the supportive role taken on by a supervisor with his/her subordinates (Greenhaus et al., 2012). The empathy and conduct of a supervisor in assisting an employee to achieve a greater balance between work and family can be highly beneficial. This could come in the form of accommodation of an employee's needs to meet family demands by providing flexibility in terms of late arrival, early departure or extended lunch breaks when required (Bond, Flaxman & Bunce, 2008). Family-supportive supervision is linked to positive work attitudes, low work-family conflict, reduced turnover intentions and a greater usage of formal work-family policies (Greenhaus et al., 2012). This study is conducted from a leadership perspective, in terms of which the impact that the different types of leadership styles have on the retention of women was examined. The family-supportive supervisor has specific reference in this regard.

The importance of work-life balance is usually magnified when a woman becomes a mother. A common notion suggests that women with childcare responsibilities are not accomplishing career goals on an equal level as men with childcare responsibilities. This view is supported by Sperling (2013), who notes that work-family conflict is a huge problem for working parents, especially women, and that steps must be taken to address these concerns. In a recent study, it was shown that children were mentioned as the biggest challenge encountered by women in their rise to leadership positions (Schueller-Weidekamm & Kautzky-Willer, 2012). For many women, having a healthy family life and attaining success in their jobs is seen as a compromise of one for the other. In the academic arena, research has shown that mothers face trials at work and at home, especially with regard to achieving equality and representation (Ward, 2014). However, it was found in a separate study that work-life balance is a worrying matter for employees at every career stage, and is not only reserved for parents with young children (Darcy, McCarthy, Hill & Grady, 2012). This finding implies that work-life balance is a current and pressing issue that affects most, if not all, employees. It also suggests that work-life balance initiatives must be designed to suit the needs of all individuals and must cater to the needs of employees at different stages of their careers; in essence, when it comes to work-life balance, a 'one-size-fits-all' type of policy would not be effective (Darcy et al., 2012). The balancing act can become very difficult and, if organisations do not heed this call, sooner or

later the balance will be sure to waver, leaving behind burnt-out employees and overly stressed individuals.

There has also been an increase in the labour force participation rates of mothers, especially mothers with young children (Grice, McGovern, Alexander, Ukestad & Hellerstedt, 2011). This occurrence would have been unheard of a few years ago, but it is slowly becoming the norm rather than the exception (Jones et al., 2013). Childbearing is seen as a focal life event that has a major impact on a woman's life (Darvill, Skirton & Farrand, 2010). An immense change in a woman's perception concerning her career takes place after she has her first child. There are many decisions to be made at this time in her life. On one hand, she must decide if she will return to work or take a career break. The birth of a child is an event of such importance that it could cause working mothers to re-examine their work environment and roles, or to leave voluntarily (Carlson et al., 2011). This is something that many women struggle with, since they are conflicted with feelings of guilt for thinking of returning to work and leaving a child in the care of someone else, while also feeling disheartened by the fact that their careers may no longer take the front seat. Some women choose to continue working but significantly reduce their hours, or to take extended leave; these women are seen to be on the 'mommy track' and are consequently not taken seriously by their male counterparts.

It must be noted that, even though work-life balance affects both parents, women commonly carry the bulk of family responsibilities, particularly after the birth of a child (Rothbard & Dumas, 2013). One outcome of this is that the development of women's careers as compared to men's is noted to be much more complex as a result of social contexts from a gendered perspective (O'Neil et al., 2008). Women take on the primary role in both domains of life, and this tendency has an effect on the roles on either side of the work-life spectrum.

Research has indicated that the consequences of taking on the additional role of a career can have an impact on the mental health of women (Barnett, 2004). Grice et al. (2007) have also maintained this opinion and have reported that work-to-family conflict (the interference of work in family time and responsibilities) has severely affected some women's mental health when returning to work after childbirth. This is due to the inability of a woman to look after her child because of her work demands, which results in feelings of guilt that ultimately negatively affect mental health. However, it was found in a new study that both work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict have been associated with lower mental health (Grice et al., 2011). This implies

that the direction of the conflict is not of concern, as the outcome is the same for both – poor mental health. It was also reported that the mental health of married women is rated healthier than that of single women, and this finding can be attributed to marriage providing increased emotional and financial support for women in secure relationships (Grice et al., 2007). Support provided away from the work domain, as well as co-worker support, is linked to higher mental health for mothers (Grice et al., 2011).

Palamari (2012) has reported that social dynamics such as low fertility rates, delayed parenting, an ageing population and a dwindling labour supply are all results of work-life balance or, put more adequately – work-life imbalance. This view is supported by other researchers (Brough, Holt, Bauld, Biggs & Ryan, 2008). It has been established that women are entering the workforce, but they also have to cope with the stress of work and home life. Earlier research identified increased absenteeism, burnout, increased levels of stress and lower levels of organisational commitment, performance and job satisfaction as a result of work-family conflict (Eby et al., 2005). These findings have been supported by other researchers, who have identified the negative results of work-family conflict as lower work performance, increased turnover, decreased marital satisfaction, poor health and depression (Jones et al., 2013). These findings provide a clear outline of the need for an effective work-life balance, which can be achieved with the help of organisations and employers.

Taking the above into consideration, it seems that the idea of having a successful career and a healthy family life is nothing short of impossible. Although the challenges are many and the road tough, there is still hope in sight. It has been proven that women can be successful in both their professional and personal capacity, but it is not an easy feat to accomplish (Halpern & Cheung, 2008). In order to make this goal achievable for women across the world, the importance of women in the workplace and their indispensable need for a greater work-life balance must be addressed.

Currently, the global economy has increased competition around the world, which in turn has put greater pressure on organisations, which has led to work pressure being intensified and a heightened degree of work-life imbalance for individuals (Brough et al., 2008). The need to address these issues could not be more relevant. Organisations must step up and initiate actions that will help individuals accomplish a greater work-life balance. This can lead to greater overall health benefits for individuals, a stronger morale and a more efficient workforce.

As more women enter the workforce it will surely bring new challenges and developments (Perrone et al., 2009). One of the greatest challenges is the need to achieve work-life balance for working women. It is the researcher's belief that, if organisations support women by means of increased work-life balance initiatives and programmes, women will feel a greater sense of loyalty to those organisations and will remain with them for a longer period of time. Evidence has been found that high levels of work-family conflict are associated with increased psychological stress, added physical symptoms, depression, burnout, higher turnover intentions and lower job and life satisfaction (McNall, Nicklin & Masuda, 2010). If there is a finer balance between work and life the outcomes will be promising – turnover intentions will decrease and overall job and life satisfaction will increase. However, such an ideal situation is a long-term goal, and the short-term and current need is to retain women. This is an obstacle that will need to be addressed in the form of policy creation and organisational support for these women.

## **2.8 THE DECISION TO LEAVE**

With the burden of performing multiple roles in the different domains of work and life, many women may experience a need to escape from either one or the other. More often than not, the role that suffers the most is the woman's career. This view is accurate, as is shown by statistics that state that, in the first decade of the twenty-first century there had been a stagnation of the employment rates of married women and mothers (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). In this section, the trend of losing talented women will be examined and the need to retain these women will be highlighted.

In a ground-breaking article written in *The New York Times*, the loss of talented women leaving organisations was sensationalised in what has been dubbed the “opt-out revolution” (Belkin, 2003). The article set the media ablaze and caused much controversy in the United States of America. Belkin (2003) portrays women leaving organisations by their own volition out of a need to be at home. In a contrasting change of events, it reveals that women are no longer being rejected by the workplace, but instead are now sitting on the other side of the table – by voluntarily leaving their jobs. The article speaks about strong, highly qualified professional women with an equal footing to the men in their fields who decided to leave (Belkin, 2003). Belkin explains that women cited the main reason for leaving as the need to look after and spend more time with their children and to pursue a more fulfilling life. The study was based on

interviews with approximately 40 women who were all Princeton graduates. Each one of them could have climbed the corporate ladder with ease. However, they chose not to pursue their careers because of maternal instinct and familial responsibilities. The workplace was not equipped to meet their needs and did not leave them with a sense of belonging and success. The article goes on to state that organisations must acknowledge that talented employees will leave, and compares this to taking 'off-ramps' from their professional lives (Belkin, 2003). In response to this, Belkin suggests that organisations must create opportunities and put structures in place to help those employees return, which is compared to having an 'on-ramp' back into the workforce.

Feminists were troubled by the sentiments expressed in the article and saw it as a step back for the feminist movement, whilst traditionalists were satisfied that things were going back to the way things should be – with women at home and not in the boardroom. In the article, Belkin (2003) mentions that many women leaders in America have chosen to leave their jobs or downgrade due to family responsibilities and commitments. Belkin concedes that the study focused primarily on upper middle-class women, most of whom were in secure relationships with husbands who could provide financial stability and support. She also admitted that, due to this fact, her study could not lead to generalisations (Belkin, 2003). However, considerable attention was generated by the content of this article (Antecol, 2011; Boushey, 2008; Hersch, 2013; Jones, 2012; Moe & Shandy, 2010; Still, 2006). The content of the article and the underlying facts of the situation facing organisations today are important for the purpose of this study. In addition, the significance of highly qualified women leaving their jobs is relevant to this study, since most women in academia fall into this category as they hold higher degrees. More importantly, the study was conducted from a leadership perspective that aimed to examine the effect of leadership style on retention, as well as the presence of opportunities for leadership positions as a retention factor. The exodus of top female talent is highly disturbing and underlines the meaning and relevance of this study.

Another alarming trend in the academic environment is the 'leaking pipeline' phenomenon. This term refers to the trend of losing female academics before they attain senior lecturer, associate professor or professor status (Bezuidenhout & Cilliers, 2011). The pipeline in this case signifies academic careers, which typically involve years of education and training before entry into the academic 'pipeline' (Gasser & Shaffer, 2014). The metaphor of a leaking pipe has reference, since it is presented as an image of a pipe with leaks along the way so that many female

academics do not make it to the top of the pipeline, because they are lost through these metaphorical leaks. Bezuidenhout and Cilliers (2011) state that the typical career paths of men and women differ, with women taking career breaks due to childbearing, or taking a slower career pace due to childrearing. This then leads to women reaching career stages later than the average man and falling out through the leaking pipeline by never reaching the top.

As expressed throughout this chapter there are many challenges facing women of the twenty-first century, especially women in senior positions. These challenges can be separated into either 'push' or 'pull' factors. Push factors are those factors that strongly influence a woman to leave her job, in other words pushing her out of the organisation. Push factors include issues such as gender discrimination or abuse. Pull factors are those factors that entice a woman away from her job, in other words pull her away from work duties. Family and children are considered as high 'pull' factors.

In the South African context a definite problem is encountered with the loss of female employees. This was expressed in an article entitled "Why they leave: Reasons executive women flee South African organisations", which appeared on the online portal Leader.co.za (Clarke, 2007). The author interviewed twenty-one executive women who resigned from their jobs in top management and other positions in South Africa. The study included eight chief executive officers (CEOs), one chief financial officer (CFO) and one chief information officer (CIO). Seven of the respondents were senior managers, two were executive managers and one was an acting chairperson. Also included among the respondents were four women from among the most influential women in South Africa in the private sector at the time.

Clark (2007) indicates that all twenty-one women chose to voluntarily leave their jobs, citing the following reasons:

- Need to make a difference: the desire to make more of a difference in South Africa
- Political acumen: a lack of political insight
- Burnout: feelings of exhaustion and stress
- Social networks: unable to be a part of the 'boys' club' and feelings of isolation
- Lack of organisational support and mentorship: lack of female mentors and assistance from the organisation
- Values clash: difference of opinion and value systems between respondents and the organisation or between the respondents and immediate supervisor

- Shocks: a specific incident that causes one to resign
- Intimidation: includes a range of factors such as sexual advances, inappropriate language, physical threats and sabotage
- Organisational culture: paternalistic organisational culture

These reasons provide evidence that a number of issues must be considered when trying to understand the reasons why women leave organisations. In a separate study, Clarke and Kleyn (2011) described the reasons that many bright and upcoming women executives provided for resigning, included the following:

- Paternalism: male perception of superiority
- Male exclusive networks: exclusive 'old boys' club'
- Lack of influence: inability to enforce decisions and make a difference
- Exposure to intimidation: directly or indirectly intimidated or threatened

The explanations stated above give us some insight into the complex issue of women voluntarily leaving their jobs and the high turnover rate of women. They also help advise the current study, which examined the reasons why women would choose to stay with organisations.

The impact of voluntary turnover on an organisation is very costly and can ultimately negatively affect the organisation's bottom line. Direct costs include loss of productivity, and training and replacement costs, while indirect costs include the disruption of organisational processes, the loss of essential human resources and the adjustment period of replacement employees (Wocke & Heymann, 2012). In the South African context, this problem is worsened by the already dwindling supply of skilled workers and the effect of legislation aimed at redressing the inequities of the past. This makes it very difficult for these organisations to comply with legislation while also retaining top talent (Wocke & Heymann, 2012).

The importance of this study cannot be stressed enough. It has been established that South African organisations are failing to retain their female workers (Clarke & Kleyn, 2011). This is despite legislation enforcing employment equity and proof that effective talent management can lead to unparalleled competitive advantage. The first step in any research is to identify the problem, which in this case is the high number of women leaving organisations or considering leaving. The second step is to develop a solution to the problem. The aim of this study thus was to search for strategies and practices that will help organisations to retain women effectively.

## 2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter established the setting for the research. The purpose of this chapter was to provide insight into the urgent need for this research and the effect it could have on organisations and individuals alike.

The beginning of the chapter introduced the new world of work that has come to light in the twenty-first century. The changes in this new type of work environment are numerous, but only two of the most relevant changes were discussed – advancements in technology and the transformation in the types of careers. These changes have provided both benefits as well as challenges in relation to retaining women in the workplace. As a result of the improvements in technology, there no longer is a need to be bound to a desk. This, in turn, has led to the emergence of the virtual organisation and the introduction of flexible work arrangements. This means that there are now more family-friendly options available for organisations to implement, such as flexitime and working from home options. The other prominent change in this century is that the direction of the typical career has taken a turn. The new types of careers are characterised by less commitment to one organisation and by higher levels of individual choice and decision making. The employee is now the director of his/her own career. This development has brought with it new trials for organisations, which will have to try harder to keep employees committed and provide more reasons for them to choose to stay. This is important for the purposes of this study, as the focus is on retention – specifically the retention of women.

The proliferation of women in the labour market around the world was also discussed. It has been proven that that there now are more women than ever before in the workforce. This is indeed a positive finding and is encouraging for future generations. The emergence of women in the work domain has changed the playing field, and organisations must try to make the best possible use of this critical resource. Women form such an important component of every household, organisation and the country as a whole. Their contributions can lead to an abundance of advantages for organisations and the economy alike. These advantages have been shown in this chapter.

The specific context of higher education in South Africa was explored, and the significance of academics in South African society was established. Higher education plays a significant role in

the development of individuals and in enhancing society. The progression of higher education was portrayed briefly, and some information on the specific institution where the research was conducted was included. This section also discussed the role of women in higher education. Once again, the low representation of women in high-level academic positions was pointed out. The way forward for women in academia is daunting, but progress has already been made, even if it has been at a slow pace.

However, the barriers to advancement that women face and the lack of respect for their needs must also be recognised. Some of the challenges that women face are the glass ceiling, the glass cliff, the gender pay gap and the low representation of women in leadership and management positions. The low levels of representation in executive and senior positions is a cause for concern, especially considering the number of women now actively involved in the labour market. Women are definitely making progress, but are not yet on par with their male counterparts, nor at the projected rate. There is still a long way to go for women in the world of work, but if organisations take heed of the benefits of this critical talent resource, the future could hold many opportunities for growth and a more effective talent management strategy.

Finally, the multiple roles of women in the twenty-first century were examined. Working women bear a multitude of roles at home and at work. This can be very stressful for the mental and physical wellbeing of these women. This leads to the urgent need for a stronger work-life balance that involves a stronger ability and supportive environment for effectively balancing the requisites of home and work life. Organisations must be more in tune with the needs of their employees in order to effectively retain them.

The final section of this chapter gave an account of a huge problem experienced by organisations – the loss of talented women in pursuit of a healthier family life. Women have taken matters into their own hands and are now leaving organisations out of their own free will. This is in line with the protean and boundaryless types of careers that were explained at the beginning of the chapter. This trend is so disconcerting that it has given rise to much research, with this phenomenon being called the opt-out revolution. Some reasons why women have chosen to leave their jobs were provided. Although the opt-out revolution usually refers to highly qualified professional women, the impact of these findings are critical, as they lay emphasis on the underlying issues of this study, which has a focus on retaining women and seeing women succeed in leadership positions.

This chapter has provided detailed information on women as a critical resource in the boardroom, in academia and at home. It has also highlighted the challenges that women face which ultimately could lead to their decision to leave. This should be borne in mind over the next two chapters, in which leadership and retention are investigated in more detail. The problem of losing female employees forms the essence of this study, as it aims to provide recommendations that will increase the retention of women from a leadership perspective. Both perspectives of leadership will be taken into account: the first is the type of leadership that will encourage women to stay with the organisation, and the second is of women being afforded opportunities to advance into leadership positions.

## CHAPTER 3: LEADERSHIP

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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The journey of discovery concerning the topic of leadership begins in this chapter. At the outset, the concept of leadership will be uncovered and examined in detail. Providing a well-rounded definition is always the first step that must be taken when addressing a new topic. However, the very notion of leadership is not an easy one to address, although an attempt will be made to provide a clearer view of this intriguing subject. Once this has been done, the various leadership theories will be explored to provide a firm grasp on the background of leadership. Our understanding of leadership is based on an understanding of how leadership theories have developed and where they are headed. For this reason, a large portion of this chapter is dedicated to leadership theories. Thereafter, the different approaches to leadership that have surfaced in the past few decades will be presented and analysed. As expressed in the previous chapters, leadership will be viewed from two perspectives for the purpose of this study. The first perspective focuses on leadership styles as a possible retention factor, and the second perspective views leadership opportunities as a retention factor. The issue of leadership opportunities and advancement of women was covered in Chapter 2. This chapter therefore concentrates primarily on the first perspective and aims to provide a holistic view of leadership as an important construct of this study.

### 3.2 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is expressed in only one word, but its application, definition and meaning are vast and limitless. Every person has their own idea of what leadership is and new research in this field is being carried out continuously. The researcher hopes to provide an overview of leadership but acknowledges that this outline cannot fully convey the magnitude and extreme significance of this concept. The notion of leadership is so vast that a simple Google search returns up to 490 000 000 results within 0.23 seconds. To begin with, a few definitions will be analysed.

Due to its extensive nature, leadership has been described by some as indefinable (Roe, 2014). On the other hand, many others have proposed definitions of leadership, each with different

outcomes and focus areas. For instance, one definition that has gained widespread acceptance defines leadership as a practice of influencing people, where one individual gains the support of others in the realisation of a common goal (Chemers, 2014). Cutler (2014) has expanded on this definition by stating that leaders influence others to embark on a plan of action in order to achieve a goal. He furthermore explains that the goal to be reached has been defined by the leader and portrays his/her vision. Another definition depicts leadership as neither a person nor a position, but instead as an intricate ethical relationship between people, built on commitment, trust, responsibility, emotion and a shared noble vision (Ciulla, 2014). In contrast, a classical definition of leadership demonstrates leadership as the domain of 'great men' who have become leaders through their unique and superior personalities (Haslam, Reicher & Platow, 2015). The different definitions portray the substantial differences in opinion regarding leadership and what it ultimately entails. The best way to approach leadership is to view it as a spectrum with extreme views on either side, but with a compromising middle ground. The one factor that most definitions have in common is the definitive realisation of a goal or the eventual accomplishment of a task that is achieved through a relationship with an individual in a position of leadership. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) propose that leaders have the capability to influence others to accomplish a goal, but this accomplishment would not have occurred had the leader not been present to make such an impact. This finding clearly indicates the critical importance of leaders in the pursuit and subsequent achievement of goals.

A clearly apparent detail regarding leadership is that it cannot be achieved without other people, and every leader must have followers (Daft, 2014). Daft (2014) adds that every leader was once a follower, or is a follower in a different sphere of life. As an extension of this, Northouse (2014) suggests that every person is solicited to be a leader at some point in life. Leadership in this instance could take many forms, for example: to facilitate a classroom debate, to manage a work project, to be the captain of a team, to be the director of a board, to guide a youth programme, etc. Leaders emerge on all levels and in different contexts. In line with the different leadership theories, some people view leadership as a trait, others view it as a behaviour, while there are some who view it as a relationship or process (Northouse, 2014). The reasons why people become leaders also vary greatly. Some are 'born to lead', others pursue their passion and, as a result, lead others to do the same, there are still others who find themselves in prestigious families where leadership is not a choice but a duty, and then there are those who stumble into positions of leadership due to circumstances beyond their control (Ciulla, 2014). This is what makes leadership research so interesting, but also so complicated.

To provide a clearer understanding of the concept of leadership, the most important points of each definition have been extracted and are presented in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3.1: Leadership Defined**

This study takes place within an organisational context. Therefore, before we progress any further with this chapter, the difference between leadership and management must be highlighted. The difficulty in separating the two concepts arises due to the fact that, to some degree, leadership entails management and management entails leadership (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Although it is extremely common to use these terms interchangeably, one can confidently say that there are distinctive differences between management and leadership. However, the question of which of the two is more important is a long-time debate that ultimately depends on a person's perspective. A review of both management and leadership is given below.

On the one hand, management is responsible for providing the division and coordination of tasks (Knights & Willmott, 2012). This occurs through a hierarchical structure in order to synchronise the workflow. Leadership, on the other hand, deals more with motivating and inspiring employees with a sense of direction and dedication (Knights & Willmott, 2012). Leaders entice members of the organisation to commit to a shared vision with a mutual sense of purpose. Managers deal with the logistics of organising and controlling the work efforts of members of the organisation to reach that goal. The line between the two sometimes blurs and elements of the one flow into the other. This simply means that managers will possess certain leadership characteristics and leaders will apply management practices in the realisation of their goals.

In *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*, the difference between leadership and management is examined critically (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). One view accepts that leadership is indeed different from management. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) note that, at the same time, it cannot be disputed that good leaders must have management skills and good managers must be able to lead. Managers are seen as obedient followers of the rules of the organisation in order to foster efficiency, while leaders are seen as nonconformists who challenge the rules in order to foster effectiveness. Managers' duties centre around planning, organising and controlling, while leaders set objectives, manage change and inspire (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Another angle on this issue is that managers are merely leaders in an organisational context, which implies that management is a subset of the broader spectrum of leadership.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher accepts the view that management forms a subcategory of leadership. The notion of leadership is extensive and all-encompassing, and not limited to prescribed rules and constructs. A general observation points out that a person in a management position is formally elected and recognised, whereas a leader could be either formally elected or could have taken on the role informally, without recognition. It could be said that, where management speaks to the mind, leadership speaks to the heart.

### **3.3 REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES**

In order to fully understand the concept of leadership, the different leadership theories that have emerged from past research must be identified and examined (Crainer & Dearlove, 2014). It must be noted that the development of leaders and effective leadership incorporates much more than merely choosing which leadership theory should be used, as human nature comprises many multifaceted and intricate developmental processes that need to be understood (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm & McKee, 2014). Nevertheless, these theories are of the utmost importance in the understanding and implementation of leadership theory and development. Leadership theories first emerged as far back as in the 1800s. As with the concept of leadership, the debate on the best leadership theory still remains unresolved. To aid understanding and to offer information to guide this chapter, a brief review of each of the central leadership theories is provided.

### 3.3.1 Great Man Theory

This theory was one of the first theories to surface and has stood the test of time. Although lacking in many aspects, it is the point of departure for leadership theories and hence is worth noting. In 1840, the historian Thomas Carlyle developed the great man theory and publicised it by means of lectures on the topic, entitled '*On Heroes: Hero-Worship and the Heroic in History*' (Carlyle, 1841). Through his work he proclaimed that history is explained most accurately by the rise of great men and that, by studying historical leaders (such as the prophet Muhammed, the political leader Napoleon Bonaparte and the theologian Martin Luther), one could cultivate one's own leadership abilities and nature (Cutler, 2014). In a recent article, Spector (2015) argues that the great man theory is a contention that specific men are actually gifts sent by God to provide the helping hand needed to inspire and improve human life. This assertion is very subjective and mystical in nature. Cutler (2014) further explains this theory by conveying that the great man theory basically suggests that leaders will emerge when the need arises, in an almost supernatural manner, to command events and lead people to safety and success.

An inherent aspect of this theory as proposed by Carlyle (1841) and explained by Cutler (2014) is that there are superior figures among us who are born to lead, and that their leadership skills, abilities and prowess are ingrained but will only come to the fore when the time to lead arrives, or when their heroic destiny is made visible. The theory is based on historical figures that were seen to possess 'great' qualities. Carlyle believed that great leaders were born and certainly not made. This distinction is at the very heart of leadership research, where some believe that leadership can be learnt, while others disagree, arguing that remarkable leaders are born to lead (Crainer & Dearlove, 2014). Many researchers are of the opinion that leaders who are born to lead do not need special training or lessons on leadership, but that it is an intrinsic skill that emerges when the right time arrives.

However, one of the distinct criticisms of this theory is that it completely rejects the potential of all women (Crainer & Dearlove, 2014; Cutler, 2014), and therefore is extremely gender biased (Spector, 2016). As the name implies, this theory only takes into consideration the leadership qualities and skills of the men of that time. Women were disregarded without any concern for their abilities and talents. As this theory emerged in the 1800s, when women's rights were still considered inferior, the indifference towards women was not perceived as a major issue for that specific era.

### 3.3.2 Trait Theory

Following the study of great leaders as introduced by the great man theory, trait theory was the next concept to materialise. Yukl (2013) explains that 'traits' signify an assortment of individual attributes that include personality, character, needs, drive and values. Roe (2014), on the other hand, is of the opinion that traits refer to routine patterns of behaviour, feelings and thoughts. It is challenging to provide a precise definition of what a trait comprises, since traits fundamentally encompass the substance of an individual's personality and character. Traits are also considered to be relatively stable over time and vary from person to person (Roe, 2014). This approach to studying leadership developed as researchers first aimed to distinguish the physical characteristics, personality attributes and natural abilities of leaders from followers (Quick & Nelson, 2013). According to Newstrom (2015), early research tried not only to discern the variances between leaders and non-leaders, but also tried to observe the distinctions of the traits of successful leaders in comparison to unsuccessful leaders. In simple terms, researchers hoped to pinpoint the traits that essentially constitute a profound leader.

Trait theorists believe that great leaders possess common personality characteristics and attributes, hence the ultimate objective of trait theory was to discover the universal traits of leaders (Crainer & Dearlove, 2014; Kane, 2015). This suggests that the qualities demonstrated by leaders would be categorised into defined leadership traits (Cutler, 2014). Effectively, by grouping or classifying leadership traits, a structured checklist is provided of the traits that leaders should possess. Crainer and Dearlove (2014) point out that the identification of these common traits could be done by studying a vast number of great leaders. The outcome would be that, once the collective traits have been detected, they could be used to recognise people with such qualities to be developed and placed in positions of authority or power (Cutler, 2014). Had this theory been proven, the implications would be far-reaching and applicable in many ways. The mere notion of the ability to identify prospective leaders has the potential to assist organisations tremendously. In an ideal world, knowing which people to employ in management positions would enable organisations to thrive and individuals with leadership traits to succeed in positions of leadership and influence. Essentially, if the common link between great leaders could be found, it would increase the efficiency of the development of leaders, as well as the cultivation of future leaders (Roe, 2014). Hundreds of research efforts were conducted during the early 1900s when trait theory came to light, with the specific aim of discovering leadership

qualities and traits. Unfortunately, these efforts proved fruitless and the breakthrough of leadership traits remained unsolved (Yukl, 2013). Regrettably, the concept of a 'checklist' of leadership traits has not materialised in over a century of research.

There have, however, been countless other studies on this subject. In recent years, Quick and Nelson (2013) have reported that of the physical characteristics that were examined with regard to effective leaders, such as age, weight, height and appearance, produced no conclusive results. These authors also indicate that the study of the personality attributes and abilities of leaders yielded slightly more positive results. For instance, research has shown that leaders are likely to be more adaptable and self-confident than the average person and that, in terms of abilities, leaders usually possess greater intelligence, better verbal communication skills, greater cooperativeness and a higher level of scholarship (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Northouse (2014) proclaims that recent research has found that there are five primary traits that can distinguish a leader from a non-leader. These are a high level of personal drive, the desire to lead, personal integrity, self-confidence and authenticity. However, these traits cannot promise effective leadership but must be seen as personal proficiencies that could be developed (Northouse, 2014). In a review of various studies on trait theory, Yukl (2013) arrives at the conclusion that, even if leadership traits were identified, certain traits could be relevant in one instance and not in another. He goes on to state that the traits and abilities required at one level of management are different to those required at higher levels of management (Yukl, 2013). These statements bear testimony to the complex nature of trait theory and the intense difficulty of reaching a convincing conclusion.

One of the main concerns of the trait approach to leadership suggests that the traits of leaders are innate, thus simply stating that leaders are born and not made (Roe, 2014). The belief that some people are instinctive leaders who possess certain intrinsic traits which are not possessed by others is central to trait theory (Yukl, 2013). This insinuation has caused much controversy and debate in the leadership field and has given rise to the major critique of trait theory. Many researchers believe that leadership traits can be taught and that regular people can be nurtured into great leaders if given proper training. Although criticised for this assumption, there are also a few positive aspects of trait theory. Among these affirming characteristics are that this approach views leadership as a person instead of a position in a hierarchy, and that it does not provide room for bias, as people are judged based on their natural abilities and not on any outward characteristic such as sex, race or social class (Roe, 2014). Crainer and Dearlove

(2014) have noted that, although trait theory and its predecessor, the great man theory, have both lost support over the years, the possibility of gaining insight into the nature, habits and traits of great leaders still manages to entice researchers of the twenty-first century. The prospect of finding conclusive evidence on the traits of leaders is thought provoking to say the least.

### **3.3.3 Behavioural Theories**

As mentioned above, the great man theory and trait theory were both highly criticised and attacked for their limited view of leadership, which indicated that leaders must be born with innate abilities and traits. Many researchers of the time felt disappointed and disheartened by the lack of progress with trait theory and decided to focus their efforts in a new direction (Yukl, 2013) by questioning whether there was something special about the way leaders actually behave (Robbins & Judge, 2015). In response to the large volume of criticism with regard to previous leadership theories, the behavioural approach surfaced with a completely different outlook and focus (Cutler, 2014). The essence of behavioural theories is that good leadership will be determined more by abilities, skills and behaviour than by personal (physical, emotional or mental) traits (Cutler, 2014; Newstrom, 2015). When considered from this perspective, Roe (2014) notes that the emphasis is still placed on the person and not on the situation or context. It is based on the premise that an individual should be at the very centre of leadership research. Holbeche (2013) suggests that behavioural theorists of the 1940s aimed to study how leaders interacted with other people instead of focusing narrowly on traits alone.

The main distinguishing feature of the behavioural approach to leadership, however, is that behaviour and skills can be taught and are flexible, while traits are inherent and rigid (Newstrom, 2015). This implies that seemingly regular individuals can be nurtured and developed into leaders by learning to display the correct types of behaviours. This clearly contradicts the fundamental principles of the great man and trait theories by claiming that a leader is not born, but could be made and transformed into one (Cutler, 2014; Holbeche, 2013; Roe, 2014). This debate is compatible with the age-old question of 'nature versus nurture'. Behavioural theories offer some valid arguments to support the view that leaders can be nurtured by means of training and the transfer of knowledge. Cutler (2014) explains that, based on this approach, leaders could be developed by observing leaders who display the appropriate behaviour and by being taught leadership skills. Perhaps a compromise between trait and

behavioural theories could exist if it was found that great leaders are indeed born with inherent leadership traits, but that good and average leaders could also be developed and nurtured.

Of the numerous behavioural theories that have emerged, there are a few that stood apart and gained popularity. These will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

### 3.3.3.1 Lewin studies

The first and earliest research regarding behavioural studies of leadership was conducted by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), who identified three types of leadership styles – autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire – based on the behaviour of leaders. Quick and Nelson (2013) point out that, according to Lewin and his colleagues, leaders use one of these styles when interacting with followers in a leadership setting, taking note that the type of situation is not relevant, as these leadership styles do not modify or adjust depending on the situation. A description of each of the identified leadership styles is provided in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Lewin Studies**

Leadership Style	Description
Autocratic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Leader takes full responsibility</li> <li>➤ Decision making occurs without consultation of team members – appropriate in emergency situations when quick decisions must be taken</li> <li>➤ Causes high levels of team dissatisfaction</li> <li>➤ Leaders are powerful, controlling and seen as dictators in relationships</li> <li>➤ Rules are followed precisely in the completion of work tasks</li> </ul>
Democratic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Team input is sought to an extent in the decision-making process – important when unanimity is required</li> <li>➤ Members value integrative participation</li> <li>➤ Leaders are responsive, cooperative and collective in their approach</li> <li>➤ Emphasis on rules is not very high</li> </ul>
Laissez-faire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Team members are afforded the opportunity to take responsibility for decision making while leaders take a step back</li> <li>➤ This style is taken on deliberately by the leader when paired with capable and motivated team members</li> <li>➤ Leaders are present as observers and fail to define goals and outcomes which leads to higher interpersonal conflict</li> </ul>

Source: Adapted from Cutler (2014); Quick & Nelson (2013)

Almost a century later, the study conducted by Lewin et al. (1939) may now be seen as inadequate, although it was a major breakthrough in leadership research at that time (Cutler, 2014). In a recent article, Billig (2014) arrived at a similar conclusion by noting that Lewin's study is the most universally cited study in the history of leadership research and has set the benchmark for other studies to be compared with and improved upon.

### *3.3.3.2 Ohio State leadership studies*

According to Yukl (2013), much of the research concerning leadership conducted in the last 50 years has followed the example set by the studies conducted at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. This view is supported by Dinh et al. (2014), who conducted a study on leadership theory and research in the new millennium. The Ohio State study took place in the 1950s using a quantitative approach and sought to provide a description of leader behaviour, but not to assess or judge it (Kane, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013). It has become known as one of the most influential studies on leadership and has set the standard for future research (Bryman, 2013). The Ohio State study, which was conducted by Ralph Stogdill and his team, strongly championed questionnaire research on successful leadership behaviour by administering a 150-item questionnaire that comprised good examples of critical leadership functions to civilian and military personnel (Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Yukl, 2013). Participants were asked to express the behaviour of their supervisors in relation to the items in the questionnaire. The results indicated that subordinates perceived their supervisor's behaviour in terms of mainly two roughly defined categories – 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' (Barling, 2014; Holbeche, 2013; Newstrom, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013). The research pursued a psychological scientific approach by using a quantitative method, and the questionnaire was titled the Ohio State University Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Holbeche, 2013). Table 3.2 provides a brief overview of each of the two categories identified in the Ohio State study:

**Table 3.2: Ohio State Leadership Studies**

Ohio State Study Outcomes	Characteristics of Outcomes
Consideration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ People and relationship oriented</li> <li>➤ Extent to which leader displays concern for the wellbeing of the group</li> <li>➤ Aimed at fostering pleasant, sociable and congenial working relationships</li> <li>➤ Promotes mutual trust and respect within the work unit</li> <li>➤ Leader acts in a helpful manner and is inclined towards the feelings and needs of his/her subordinates</li> </ul>
Initiating Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Task-oriented</li> <li>➤ Extent to which a leader outlines roles and activities, initiates behaviours and defines how tasks should be accomplished</li> <li>➤ Aimed at formulating clear channels of communication and good organisation within groups</li> <li>➤ Leader structures his/her own role and the roles of subordinates in the attainment of a shared goal</li> </ul>

*Source: Adapted from Holbeche (2013); Quick & Nelson (2013); Yukl (2013)*

### 3.3.3.3 Michigan leadership studies

As stated above, the studies carried out at the University of Michigan also proved highly useful and served as a benchmark for future behavioural leadership research. These studies were conducted at roughly the same time as the Ohio State studies, but offered greater theoretical explanations of leader behaviour (Kane, 2015; Yukl, 2013). The Michigan studies endeavoured to establish which methods and principles of leadership would initiate greater staff satisfaction and productivity (Cutler, 2014). Quick and Nelson (2013) suggest that leadership style plays a critical role in the emotional climate of the work environment, and this in turn has an impact on the followers who operate under the leader in the same environment. As a result, two types of leadership styles were identified – employee-oriented and production-oriented leaders (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013). The results of the studies indicate that productivity was positively influenced by the application of the employee-oriented style of leadership (Cutler, 2014). A brief outline of the differences between these two leadership styles is provided in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3: Michigan Leadership Studies**

Employee Oriented	Production Oriented
Work environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ less direct supervision</li> <li>▪ rules and regulations are not always enforced</li> </ul>	Work environment: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ close supervision</li> <li>▪ adherence to strict rules and regulations</li> </ul>
Focus on relationships	Focus on getting work done
Concern for members of the organisation	Concern for task at hand
Helpful and supportive	Coordinates and plans
Recognises subordinates performance	Sets high performance goals for subordinates

Source: Adapted from Cutler (2014); Quick & Nelson (2013); Yukl (2013)

Two distinct leadership styles emerge from the discussion of the three behavioural studies mentioned – the Lewin studies, the Ohio State studies and the Michigan Leadership studies. One leadership style emphasises tasks and protocol, and the other focuses on people and relationships. Although they have been classified differently in each of the studies, the basis of each is fundamentally similar. Table 3.4 outlines the characteristics of the three leadership studies with regard to each theory’s focus on tasks or people.

**Table 3.4: Leadership Styles**

	Focus on task	Focus on people
<b>Lewin Studies</b>	Autocratic	Democratic
<b>Ohio State Studies</b>	Initiating structure	Consideration
<b>Michigan Studies</b>	Employee oriented	Production oriented

According to Holbeche (2013) and Yukl (2013), these studies have identified three significant characteristics of effective leaders:

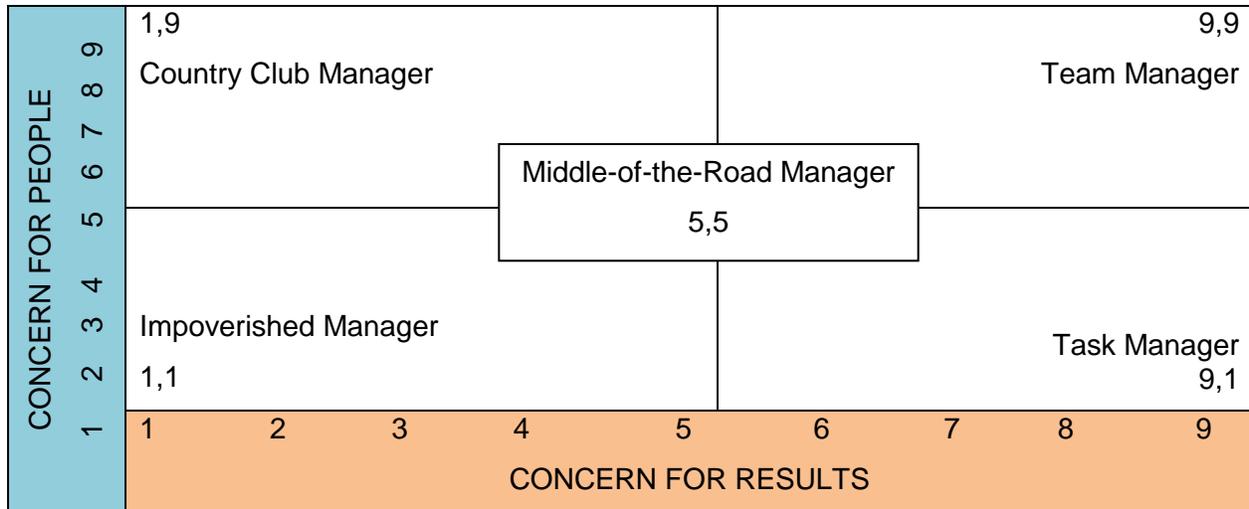
1. Task-oriented behaviour: effective leaders plan and coordinate tasks, allocate resources and guide subordinates towards high-performance targets.
2. Relationship-oriented behaviour: effective leaders display trust and confidence in subordinates’ abilities, help with the development of subordinates and recognise the contributions of subordinates.

3. Participative leaders: effective leaders prefer greater group supervision to individual supervision, increase participation of subordinates in communication, decision making and conflict resolution, and act in a supportive role.

The extent to which these behaviours are displayed indicates the difference between effective and ineffective leaders (Yukl, 2013).

#### 3.3.3.4 *Managerial grid/leadership grid*

The managerial grid was developed by behavioural researchers Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (Blake & Mouton, 1964). They expanded on the studies conducted at the Ohio State and Michigan universities by identifying two vital drivers of managerial behaviour – 1) *concern for people*: the degree to which a leader considers subordinates' needs, development and interests in the pursuit of a task and 2) *concern for results*: the degree to which a leader sets objectives, allocates resources and outlines production targets in the pursuit of a task (Crainer & Dearlove, 2014; Cutler, 2014; Kane, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Roe, 2014). The two dimensions are based on the perspective of the attitude of the leader, and are separate and independent of each other, and distinctive combinations of these dimensions bring about different leadership styles (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Blake and Mouton (1964) argued that a complete focus on either side of the spectrum (by focusing only on interpersonal relationships or an extreme focus on the task at hand) would not be viable and the consequences could be detrimental to the realisation of goals (Roe, 2014). This implies that, for leaders to be effective, they should have a balance between a 'concern for people' and a 'concern for results'. On the basis of the outcomes of their research Blake and Mouton formed a managerial grid, which later became known as the leadership grid (Roe, 2014). The grid has two axes that represents the two dimensions, and five different styles of leadership are recognised by different points on the grid (Cutler, 2014). Figure 3.2 below provides a graphical representation of the leadership grid:



**Figure 3.2: Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid**

Source: Adapted from: Cutler (2014); Kane (2015); Quick & Nelson (2013); Roe (2014)

Cutler (2014, Kane (2015) and Roe (2014) have provided a description of each of the five leadership styles, as shown below:

- Country Club Manager (1,9) – high concern for people/low concern for results:  
Leaders try their best to make team members feel comfortable, secure and satisfied in their work roles, believing that a happy worker whose needs are accommodated will prove to be a productive worker. Unfortunately, although the work environment is warm, friendly and relaxed, production tends to suffer due to a lack of direction from the leader and because the development of relationships takes priority over the fulfilment of tasks.
- Task Manager (9,1) – low concern for people/high concern for results:  
This type of manager takes on an authoritarian/compliance management style. Leaders are seen as dictators who control and dominate. Leaders following this style show little to no concern for team members and see them as a means to an end. The needs of subordinates come secondary to the fulfilment of tasks and reaching of production targets. Rules and punishments are used as tools to pressure employees into achieving goals.
- Impoverished (1,1) – low concern for people/low concern for results:  
These leaders display an indifferent approach and show no interest in the development of relationships or in the pursuit of tasks. Their main concern is dodging responsibility and avoiding accountability for problems that may occur, while preserving their jobs or seniority.

The very nature of this style triggers an environment filled with disorganisation and dissatisfaction. The manager is disengaged from his subordinates and is uncaring towards the needs of the organisation.

➤ Team Manager (9,9) – high concern for people/high concern for results:

When the findings of the managerial grid were first published, Blake and Mouton (1964) specified that this is the best style to adopt in order to be an effective leader. Leaders who display an active interest in both sides of the spectrum will have no trouble in achieving production targets while at the same time retaining a happy, healthy workforce. Managers effectively make a contribution to the objectives of the organisation and commit to developing and assisting their subordinates. Leaders using this style must ensure that the team members feel like an integral part of the organisation and that their views are considered in decision making. Individuals will value their role in the organisation and perform better.

➤ Middle-of-the-Road Manager (5,5) – medium concern for people/medium concern for results:

This leadership style may look like the ideal compromise situation because it focuses equally on people and results. The belief here is that, by achieving a balance between tasks and relationships, both outcomes will be accomplished. However, the compromise comes at a price, since enough emphasis is not placed on either dimension and in the end both outcomes are not achieved. People are not fully developed and productivity does not rise. Average performance is accepted and managers lack direction and integrity. Managers try their best to avoid conflict by accepting mediocre performance.

This brings us to the end of behavioural theories and to the beginning of the next phase of leadership research. Cutler (2014) advises that, although behavioural theories have formed a large basis of leadership research and have provided critical information on the diverse categories of leader behaviour, they remain incomplete. The reason for this is simply that behavioural theories do not consider the varying situations that a leader will come across (Cutler, 2014). A major critique of both trait and behavioural theories is that the focus is solely on the individual, without concern for his/her relationship with the environment or with his/her followers. Newstrom (2015) has accurately pointed out that the older approaches to leadership style facilitated the development of the newer approaches by providing essential information

about leaders and their behaviour. The newer approaches, however, have taken into account more than only the individual by considering the context as a crucial element in the types of leaders that emerge.

### **3.3.4 Contingency/Situational Theories**

Contingency theory supports the view that leadership style should be dependent (contingent) on the specific situation (Quick & Nelson, 2013). According to Holbeche (2013), contingency theory states that there is no 'one-size-fits-all' type of approach to leadership; instead, the best approach takes into consideration both the external and internal situations. Leaders are required to adapt themselves to the nature of the specific situation and cannot stick to only one style (Cutler, 2014). Flexibility is thus of the utmost importance. Leaders must decide when it is suitable to use a specific style and when it is not. Fundamental factors that are present in the situation will be identified and used as a guide (Northouse, 2014). What contingency theory tries to encourage is that diverse contexts will require different inputs, and leaders must be able and willing to adjust themselves when needed. In contrast to the trait and behavioural theories, contingency theory has placed emphasis on the followers and the organisational context (Roe, 2014). This indicates a step further in leadership research, because it goes against general common sense to presume that the situation plays no part in the type of leadership style to be used.

A number of contingency theories have emerged, all of which have played a part in the development of research in this area. However, for the purpose of this study, only a few of the most popular theories and models are discussed.

#### *3.3.4.1 Fiedler's contingency theory*

As the name implies, this model, which has caused much debate, was designed by Fred Fiedler and his colleagues (Fiedler, 1964; 1967; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). This theory of leadership suggests that team effectiveness is determined by the match between the needs of the leader and the promising nature of the situation (Quick & Nelson, 2013). The model is based on the distinction between task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership styles (Newstrom, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Roe, 2014). As discussed previously, task-oriented leaders will obtain satisfaction when a task is accomplished or a goal is reached, while relationship-oriented

leaders will attain fulfilment from meaningful and pleasant interpersonal relationships (Cutler, 2014).

This led Fiedler to the introduction of the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Roe, 2014; Yukl, 2013). Cutler (2014) describes the manner in which this scale is used: users of the scale are asked to consider a person whom they least enjoy working with (the least preferred co-worker), under any sort of circumstances or in any situation. They are then asked to score this person on a bipolar adjective scale with a range of extremes, such as friendly/unfriendly, sincere/insincere, cheerful/gloomy, etc. The LPC score is the sum of the ratings from this scale (Yukl, 2013). This model works on the premise that task-oriented leaders are more inclined to view co-workers in a negative light – resulting in a low score on the scale, whilst relationship-oriented leaders are more likely to have a higher regard of co-workers – resulting in a high score on the scale (Cutler, 2014). Roe (2014) advises that the questionnaire did not ask users to think of the person that they least liked, but instead to consider the person that it would be the most challenging to work with. If negative terms were used to describe the LPC, the individual was classified as low LPC or as a task-oriented leader. If positive terms were used to describe the LPC, the individual was classified as high LPC or as a relationship-oriented leader.

Regardless of which type of orientation leaders assume, their overall effectiveness as a leader will be controlled by the overall favourability of the situation (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Newstrom (2015) supports this view by suggesting that the favourability of the situation to the leader will determine the most suitable leadership style to be used. As the situation changes, so will the requirements of leadership.

Cutler (2014) and Newstrom (2015) explain that the favourableness of the leader's situation is categorised according to three factors:

1. Leader-member relations: how the leader is accepted by the group, the level of trust between leaders and followers
2. Task structure: the degree to which a specific way is used to accomplish a task, whether the task is clear or vague
3. Leader position power: the organisational power assigned to the leader's position, the extent to which the leader must direct followers by means of rewards and punishment

Taking the above into consideration, Cutler (2014) and Quick and Nelson (2013) explain that an extremely favourable leadership situation would include the following features:

- Superior leader-member relations with high amounts of trust and confidence in each other
- A well-defined task
- Strong position power for the leader of the group, with followers accepting orders without hesitation

In contrast to the above, an extremely unfavourable leadership situation would occur when there is:

- Reasonably poor leader-member relations with a lack of mutual respect and trust
- An ambiguous and unclear task
- Weak position power for the leader of the group, with followers rebelling against the leader

Quick and Nelson (2013) offer the following summary of this model: In essence, Fiedler's contingency theory suggests that both high-LPC (relationship-oriented) and low-LPC (task-oriented) leaders could be effective if placed in the appropriate situation. In more precise terms, very favourable or very unfavourable leadership situations would require task-oriented leaders for leadership to be effective, whilst leadership situations of transitional favourableness would require relationship-oriented leaders for leadership to be effective (Cutler, 2014; Roe, 2014). Leadership effectiveness is determined by the correct match between the leader and the situation with regard to the three dimensions described above. This theory has faced many criticisms (Cutler, 2014), but has proven invaluable in its contribution of including the situation in the study of leadership effectiveness (Quick & Nelson, 2013; Yukl, 2013). By including forces that are beyond the leader's control, this approach provides a more holistic view of leadership (Roe, 2014).

#### *3.3.4.2 Path-goal theory*

Following the tone set by Fiedler's least preferred co-worker model, path-goal theory was developed by Robert House during the 1970s and further advanced upon during the next decade by expanding on an earlier version of the theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; 1977; 1997). This theory was used to clarify how the behaviour of the leader affects the performance and overall satisfaction of the followers (Yukl, 2013). Roe (2014) expounds on this view by stating that leaders should strive to enhance the performance of their followers by increasing

their motivation. This theory also aims to address one of the restrictions of the least preferred co-worker model by affirming that leader behaviour can be altered according to the unique opportunities and challenges of the situation (Cutler, 2014). From the viewpoint of path-goal theory, the primary function of the leader is to help his/her followers by creating an unobstructed path to their goals (Cutler, 2014; Newstrom, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Roe, 2014). This type of approach requires leaders to use structure, support and rewards to establish a work environment that is conducive to assisting employees to reach the goals of the organisation (Newstrom, 2015).

According to Quick and Nelson (2013), path-goal theory identifies four leadership styles that can be used to clear the path for followers to reach their work and personal goals. Leaders must determine the most suitable style to fit the characteristics of the followers and their environment. It is important to note that leaders have control over the style that is chosen at any given time.

Roe (2014) offers the following description of the four leadership styles:

1. Participative: subordinates are consulted and decision making is a shared process
2. Directive: subordinates are given clear orders and are expected to follow instructions
3. Supportive: subordinates' feelings are taken into consideration and the leader creates a warm and comfortable environment
4. Achievement oriented: the leader displays exemplary behaviour, attempting to set standards and enhance performance by non-directive methods

As explained earlier, the unique characteristics of the followers and their environments will determine the best leadership style to be used. Cutler (2014) expounds on the suitability of each style, given different circumstances:

- The directive style is used when tasks are highly unstructured yet interesting, team work is effective but team members lack experience and followers expect guidance and instructions.
- The participative style is used when there are highly complex unstructured tasks, team members are experienced and confident and followers prefer to have autonomy over their work.
- The supportive style is used when tasks are simple and predictable, team work is not effective but team members are experienced and confident and followers would ultimately reject a close watch over their work.

- The achievement-oriented style is used when tasks are unstructured, complex and unpredictable, team members are experienced and confident and followers accept authority and the goals that are set for them.

Newstrom (2015) reiterates the value of path-goal theory in identifying an additional contingency variable (follower characteristics) and broadening the selection of leader behaviours. Quick and Nelson (2013) also note that this theory has instinctive appeal by strengthening the notion that the best leadership style will be dependent on both the work situation as well as the followers' circumstances. However, Cutler (2014) is of the opinion that path-goal theory fails to incorporate the impact that emotional ties between the leader and his/her followers could have on leadership behaviour.

#### *3.3.4.3 Situational leadership theory*

Situational leadership theory is another contingency theory that further explores the relationship between leaders and followers (Cutler, 2014). It was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977). The underlying message conveyed by this theory is that there is not only a single best leadership style, but that different styles could be the best in different situations (Roe, 2014). Leadership researchers have progressed in their thinking by considering the external factors that could and should affect leadership style. Hersey and Blanchard's theory provides a strong argument against the on-going 'one-size-fits-all' leadership debate. This theory suggests that the most significant factor affecting leadership style is the maturity or developmental level of the subordinates (Newstrom, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2015; Yukl, 2013). Furthermore, the model expects leaders to adjust their leadership style according to the evolution of the followers' development levels or according to particular conditions in the broader environment (Cutler, 2014; Roe, 2014). Newstrom (2015) describes development level as the combination of an employee's capability to carry out tasks and motivation to perform. Development levels are assessed by observing the employee's level of job-related ability, skill and knowledge, along with accountability, responsibility and competence to work independently (Newstrom, 2015).

Quick and Nelson (2013) report that the task-oriented and relationship-oriented components of leadership that were previously used in the Ohio State studies are also utilised in the situational leadership model. Leadership style is split into four types: telling, selling, participating and

delegating (Robbins & Judge, 2015). Follower maturity or development level is also categorised into four levels (Quick & Nelson, 2013). The different leadership styles with their corresponding development levels are presented in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5: The Situational Leadership Model**

LEADERSHIP STYLE	DEVELOPMENT LEVEL (MATURITY) OF FOLLOWER	TASK ORIENTATION	RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION
Telling: Clear and firm instructions and deadlines are given by the leader. Progress is supervised closely.	Low Maturity: Experience and confidence to complete tasks are lacking. Unwilling to try.	High	Low
Selling: Tasks are explained with justification. Leader is available to offer support.	Medium Maturity (limited skills): Competence and ability are lacking but enthusiasm to accomplish the task is present.	High	High
Participating: Followers and leaders work together. Leaders seek the input of followers and commitment is encouraged.	Medium Maturity (adequate skills): Is competent and able to complete tasks but lacks confidence and commitment to complete them.	Low	High
Delegating: Leader grants followers responsibility over goal setting and reaching performance standards.	High Maturity: Efficient, capable, confident in abilities and committed to accomplishing the task.	Low	Low

*Source: Adapted from Cutler (2014); Quick & Nelson (2013)*

In practical terms, if an individual does not possess the capability to perform a task but has the motivation and confidence to perform, the leader should use the ‘selling’ leadership style to manage this individual. This style encompasses high task and high relationship behaviour and leaders can explain the tasks clearly while providing the opportunity for followers to seek assistance when needed. The other styles are used in different circumstances, depending on the development level of the follower.

The Situational Leadership model does not have a central hypothesis that can be tested and that reduces its reliability and validity as a leadership theory; however, it is used extensively for training and development in organisations and has made a significant contribution to leadership research (Quick & Nelson, 2013).

#### *3.3.4.4 Leader/member exchange theory*

Although various researchers group this theory into different categories, it is still considered a contingency theory by many. For instance, Cutler (2014) classifies leader/member exchange theory (LMX) under relationship theories, while Roe (2014) has inserted it under the category of followership instead of contingency. Regardless of where it is placed, this theory has gained popularity over the years and provides us with insightful and valuable input into the relationship between leaders and their followers. The theory was developed by Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975), who first named it vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory.

LMX proposes that, due to time constraints, leaders tend to formulate a special bond or relationship with a small group of followers (Robbins & Judge, 2015). In contrast to the traditional view of the simple and uncomplicated relationship between leaders and followers, Roe (2014) argues that leader-member relations are much more complex and are composed of multiple interactions between the leader and each individual follower. The reciprocal relationship between leaders and followers transpires by leaders selectively assigning, informing, conferring, mentoring and rewarding each individual follower; and in exchange for this, these followers provide varying amounts of trust, respect and performance for their leaders (Newstrom, 2015). The fundamental idea of leader/member exchange theory is that unique relationships are formed with each subordinate and that these relationships differ in terms of quality (Shuffler, Burke, Kramer & Salas, 2013). According to Barling (2014), the primary emphasis of LMX is its focus on the quality of relationships between leaders and followers. Some relationships are clear, uncomplicated, contractual types in which interpersonal relations do not play a part and are seen as low-quality relationships. On the other hand, some relationships are of high quality, encompass mutual trust and respect for one another and have the ability to transform a person's work situation. Yukl (2013) describes these relationships in terms of 'exchange' instead of quality, with high-exchange relationships referring to relationships with increased interaction, whilst low-exchange relationships require minimal contact. High-exchange relationships are only formed with a small number of followers who are trustworthy and faithful (Yukl, 2013).

This brings forth the concept of in-groups and out-groups (Cutler, 2014; Newstrom, 2015; Quick & Nelson, 2013; Shuffler et al., 2013; Yukl, 2013). Newstrom (2015) found that the quality or exchange levels of the relationship between leaders and followers determine whether an employee will gain favoured status (in-group) or be placed in the less preferred clique (out-group). In-group members are likely to be similar to the leader, receive greater responsibility, rewards and attention, and are allowed into the personal level of the leader's communication circle (Quick & Nelson, 2013). The distinction between in-group members and out-group members could not be more distinct. Members of the out-group receive little to no responsibility, fewer rewards and less attention, and are communicated with on a 'need-to-know' basis (Quick & Nelson, 2013). As a result of the divergent treatment that the members of the two groups receive, there are bound to be consequences. In-group members have higher levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, perform better and also have lower turnover intentions (Cutler, 2014). Out-group members, on the other hand, are less satisfied (Cutler, 2014) and are prone to retaliate against the organisation due to perceptions of injustice and inequity (Quick & Nelson, 2013).

This theory is controversial in nature (Roe, 2014), since it clearly implies that leaders consciously favour certain individuals more than others. LMX theory displays the true disposition of human nature, but it is criticised for this in an age where equity is championed and laws advocating anti-discrimination are enforced. Although it is useful in understanding the relationship between leaders and followers, it is much less helpful in describing the leader behaviour that would guide high-quality leader-member relations (Cutler, 2014).

As acknowledged at the beginning of this section, there are many contingency theories that have contributed to leadership research, but not every theory can be discussed. Some of the other contingency theories are the following:

- Vroom's Normative Decision Making Model helps managers identify when subordinates should be involved in decision making (Quick & Nelson, 2013).
- The Leadership Substitutes Theory implies that leaders or leader behaviour could effectively be replaced or neutralised by unique factors in the situation (Newstrom, 2015).
- The Multiple-Linkage Model generally describes the interacting effects of situational variables on managerial behaviour (Yukl, 2013).

- The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum suggests that leadership behaviour is continually adapting and should be based on a continuum from an autocratic extreme to a fully participative leader (Cutler, 2014).
- The Cognitive Resource Theory assesses when cognitive abilities such as intelligence could be linked to group performance (Yukl, 2013).

## **3.4 EMERGING APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP**

### **3.4.1 Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

Research on the theme of leadership is continuously evolving and progressing with the emergence of new viewpoints and theories. James Burns was the first to initiate interest in the concept of transforming leadership by describing a unique way of looking at leadership that differed from previous approaches (Burns, 1978). However, it was Bass (1985) who introduced the distinction between transactional, transformational and laissez-faire leadership behaviours. This was subsequently expanded upon by Bass (1985) and his collaborator Avolio (2011), and has been classified as the “full-range leadership theory” (Avolio, 2011; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Bass, 2008). Antonakis and House (2014) contend that the reason for this theory was to convey that leadership should go beyond a process of social and economic exchange to an explanation of how dedication, loyalty, commitment and excellent performance can be created by the leader. This has fast become one of the most researched contemporary theories in leadership behaviour (Antonakis & House, 2014; Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009).

Each of the leadership theories discussed previously – trait, behavioural and contingency – have been based primarily on the perspective of ‘transactional leadership’. These early leadership theories explained leader behaviour in terms of exchange relationships between leaders and their followers, in which leaders provided guidance and support and also strengthened the behaviour of followers (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). From this standpoint, leadership is seen as a process of social exchange between leaders and followers which arises when a leader endeavours to apply influence or simply decides to lead (Roe, 2014). Walumbwa and Wernsing (2013) arrive at a similar conclusion, noting that transactional leadership is centred on the concept of exchange, which, if seen from a business point of view, is achieved by offering financial rewards for productivity. Yukl (2013) presents yet another, similar view by stating that transactional leaders motivate their followers by appealing to their self-regard and

the benefits of exchange. From the above it can be seen that the essence of transactional leadership is likened to that of a transaction – where some type of reward is gained for work tendered. In this type of situation, leaders assist their followers to achieve tasks and to reach performance standards. Quick and Nelson (2013) suggest that transactional leaders basically strike deals with their followers by using rewards and punishment as leverage. Tyssen, Wald and Spieth (2014) explain that transactional leadership concentrates specifically on the exchange of task-related actions and rewards between leaders and followers.

Walumbwa and Wernsing (2013) report that transactional leadership comprises three types of leadership behaviours:

- Contingent-reward leadership: exchanges are tangible, economic and emotional in nature. Roles are clarified and outcomes are rewarded.
- Active management-by-exception: leaders actively monitor behaviour and step in to apply corrective measures when deviations from the norm occur.
- Passive management-by-exception: leaders wait passively for mistakes to be made before corrective action is applied

Although transactional leadership is an important component of the full-range theory, the aspect of the theory that has garnered the most interest, and rightly so, is the transformational leadership component. This type of leadership is said to have a powerful psychological impact on followers that goes far beyond the impact of transactional leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014). Burns (1978) originally described the notion of transforming leadership as arising when leaders and followers uplift each other to higher degrees of morality and motivation. Bass (1985) went on to modify the concept into transformational leadership that portrays the leader's influence on followers, and not the other way around. Transformational leaders aim to inspire and motivate followers to the achievement of exceptional outcomes and, at the same time, to develop their own leadership abilities (Roe, 2014). As the name implies, this type of leadership intends to transform individuals by using more than plain rewards and punishments. Where transactional leadership is task-centred, transformational leadership is person-centred in that the needs of followers are directly aligned with the strategic goals of the organisation (Tyssen et al., 2014). Breevaart and others (2014) suggest that transformational leaders encourage and inspire their followers to go above and beyond what is expected of them, reaching further than a mere fulfilment of goals. Followers feel a sense of pride, respect and trust towards a

transformational leader and, as a result, they are determined to do more than expected (Yukl, 2013).

Cutler (2014) goes on to comment that this approach to leadership assumes that a leader who has a striking vision and the ability to stimulate and inspire others will obtain followers due to these qualities. This is contradictory to transactional leadership, which acquires followers based on the enticement of reward or the fear of punishment. Transformational leaders are confident in their abilities and personal attributes without having to rely on their official position or rank within the organisation (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Yukl (2013) provides a deeper meaning to it, by asserting that, when transformational leadership is used, the morality of followers is enticed to think about ethical issues and to use this knowledge to reform institutions. Transformational leadership is seen as a process of inspiring others to the accomplishment of shared goals by also acknowledging individual needs, encouraging creative thinking, and ensuring alignment between the values of individuals and the greater whole (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). Transformational leaders are required in times of change, as they can play an instrumental role in this process. These leaders introduce bold changes within organisations, create a vision and actively endorse it, and they help followers to open their minds to the bigger picture (Newstrom, 2015). Whichever way you look at it, transformational leaders aim to inspire, motivate and ignite the flame of excellence within individuals through their impetus.

Roe (2014) provides a breakdown of the four factors that constitute transformational leadership:

- Individualised consideration: The focus is on the individual and leaders treat each person according to his/her unique needs. The leader provides a supportive environment based on individual requirements, which lead to enhanced performance.
- Inspirational motivation: leaders inspire followers by conveying a captivating vision while also involving them in its creation and implementation.
- Intellectual stimulation: Creativity and innovation are rewarded and supported by the leader. The view held here is that it is better to fail than to be too afraid to try.
- Idealised influence: leaders act as role models who have high moral values and can be depended upon to do the right thing.

Cutler (2014), along with Walumbwa and Wernsing (2013), have identified a further factor that is included in transformational leadership:

- Idealised attributes/attributed idealised influence: followers attribute positive qualities to the leader based on how the leader is perceived by followers. This builds respect and trust.

This fifth dimension of transformational leadership is also referred to as the charisma of the leader (Conger, 2013).

According to Conger (2013) and Roe (2014), Burns originally positioned transactional and transformational leadership on opposite sides of a continuum, while Bass identified them as separate dimensions. However, once the full-range leadership theory surfaced it was established that leaders may use any of the approaches, depending on the requirements of the followers. It is assumed that, even though transactional leaders can be effective, transformational leaders will be even more so (Breevaart et al., 2014). Bass and Bass (2008) argue that transformational leadership is applicable across a selection of factors, which makes it more effective. Breevaart et al. (2014) point out that leaders should employ both transactional and transformational leadership, but the most effective leader will be the one who uses transformational leadership more often than transactional leadership. Although they are distinct components, they are not mutually exclusive and effective leaders should use a combination of both types of leadership (Yukl, 2013). This view is in congruence with the original view held by Bass (1985), who declared that transformational and transactional leadership should not be seen as separate styles of leadership that are in contrast to each other. Instead, transformational leadership should be used to supplement transactional leadership in order to reach extraordinary performance levels (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013).

### **3.4.2 Charismatic Leadership**

Transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are interconnected, since charismatic leadership also follows the concept of inspiring followers without using rewards or punishment. It could be said that charismatic and transformational leadership are derived from the same family of leadership styles, which aims to instil inspiration through emotional influences, symbolic actions, inspirational messages, ideological values and the intellectual stimulation of followers (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). In line with this view, charismatic and transformational leaders are seen as agents of change in transforming individuals into efficient,

motivated, empowered teams working together towards a shared goal. These theories describe how leaders influence their followers to put the goals of the organisation above their own and thereby make personal sacrifices for the good of the team or organisation (Mittal, 2015). The interest in these theories is staggering and, for the past 25 years, they have been the prevailing paradigms in leadership research (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014). Although they may seem highly similar, there are distinct differences between the two, especially when it comes down to the core influence processes (Yukl, 2013).

Oreg and Berson (2014) explain that charismatic leaders motivate their followers by way of their strong convictions and beliefs, their confidence and their inspirational vision. These leaders are seen as uniquely gifted individuals who have the ability to draw people into their vision (Conger, 2013). The term 'charismatic leadership' was first coined by Max Weber in 1947, when he described charismatic leaders as those who are set apart from ordinary men and who are blessed with extraordinary talents, qualities and influence that cannot be acquired by ordinary men (Bass & Bass, 2008; Conger, 2013; Weber, 1947). Weber (1947) goes so far as to say that the qualities of these leaders are of divine origin, which is why they are not within the reach of the average man. The idea behind this could be associated with the origins of charisma as a concept. The word charisma is derived from a Greek word which, roughly translated, means 'divine gift', and this effectively conveys the meaning of charisma as being in possession of godlike qualities (Mittal, 2015). The work conducted by Weber led the way for future researchers, and the study of charismatic leadership has continued up to this very day (Conger, 2013).

Followers of charismatic leaders perceive them as possessing exceptional qualities that validate them as leaders. Charismatic leaders do not attract followers by virtue of their official position or formal authority, but by their charm and appeal (Yukl, 2013). Such leaders arouse the enthusiasm of followers by conveying a powerful vision and generating belief and confidence in its accomplishment. Charismatic leaders usually have a strong vested interest in their vision and place themselves in positions of risk to attain it. Followers feel the need and desire to assist in the success of the vision and are captivated by the allure of the leader. A key aspect of charismatic leadership lies in the followers' perceptions of the leader (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Mittal, 2015). This means that a charismatic leader will only be successful if followers perceive the leader as possessing exceptional qualities. If the leader is seen as not worthy, individuals will not be inclined to follow such a leader. This was developed into the attribution theory of

charismatic leadership by Conger and Kanungo (1987; 1999). This theory conceives that the leader's behaviour, abilities and situational aspects jointly determine the followers' attribution of charismatic qualities to the leader.

Even though transformational and charismatic leadership may share certain underlying principles, such as reaching levels of performance beyond expectations, the differences between the two must be understood and acknowledged. Table 3.6 provides a brief summary of the most critical variations between the two theories, as advocated by Mittal (2015).

**Table 3.6: Differences Between Charismatic and Transformational Leadership**

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP	TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP
Leadership is attributed to the perceived charisma of the leader	Leadership is attained through trust, respect and the involvement of employees
The vision of the leader is projected onto followers without followers understanding the reason behind it	The vision of the leader is shared amongst followers as they are able to see the value of the work they contribute
Followers are dependent on the leader for guidance and motivation	Followers are encouraged to develop themselves and as a result are less dependent on the leader
Followers require the input of the leader to complete tasks	Followers are empowered to complete tasks by themselves
Influence process is one way: leader → follower	Influence process is reciprocal: leader-follower/follower-leader

*Source: Adapted from Mittal (2015)*

Charismatic leaders have an incredible effect on the organisation, but the results are not always helpful and at times may even be detrimental (Yukl, 2013). One of the main consequences of employing a charismatic leader is that employees become so dependent on the leader's guidance and leadership that if the leader were to leave halfway through a project, employees would not be equipped to see the project through to completion. Despite some of the negative outcomes of charismatic leadership, it is still an important element of contemporary leadership theory.

### **3.4.3 Other Approaches to Leadership: Authentic and Servant Leadership**

Leadership is a continuously evolving field in which new theories constantly appear. Two of these relatively new philosophies on leadership are authentic leadership and servant leadership. These two concepts will not be discussed in detail, but deserve to be mentioned as a valid component of leadership theory.

Authentic leadership materialised largely due to the ethical scandals that have shaken the business world in recent years (Quick & Nelson, 2013), and as a reaction to the economic conditions arising from the recession (Roe, 2014). Authentic leadership calls for leaders to be of high integrity, and to have moral principles and ethical standards. Authentic leaders are committed to building lasting organisations, hold a true sense of purpose and stand firm beside their beliefs (Cutler, 2014). This type of leadership requires leaders to be true to themselves and to uphold the best version of themselves (Cutler, 2014; Roe, 2014). Authentic leaders encourage and accept the inputs of others, share and communicate information required for decision making, and reveal their personal beliefs, motives, values and ideas (Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang & Wu, 2014). These leaders are highly self-aware and remain faithful to their convictions even when there is external pressure to conform (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). In essence, this leadership theory encourages transparency, ethicality, optimism, resilience and confidence and has a future orientation (Avolio, Griffith, Wernsing & Walumbwa, 2010). By imparting these qualities, authentic leaders create a work environment that is inclusive of these qualities, which in turn helps motivate and stimulate followers. Quick and Nelson (2013) advise that authentic leaders can use charismatic, transformational and transactional leadership styles as the situation requires. Research suggests that, by supporting self-determination and psychological engagement, authentic leaders may positively influence the behaviour of employees in various ways (Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013).

The second contemporary theory to emerge focuses on the need for leadership theories to place greater emphasis on the needs of followers. Most theories focus mainly on the leader and his/her self-interest. This has led to support for research in the opposite direction, and servant leadership could be the answer that researchers have been looking for. Also seen as a reaction to the unethical conduct of business leaders, servant leadership provides a brand new outlook on the concept of leadership. This approach to leadership proposes that the requirement to lead is not of the greatest importance, but instead the most significant aspect lies in the leader's

obligation to serve his/her followers (Cutler, 2014). The primary goal of servant leadership is based on service to followers instead of service to oneself (Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne & Cao, 2014). Essentially, such leaders are literally servants to their followers, as the name adequately implies. Servant leaders have a desire to serve and to place the needs of others above their own (Panaccio, Donia, Saint-Michel & Liden, 2015). A key guideline of servant leadership is that followers will have greater levels of wisdom, improved health and higher autonomy (Du Plessis, Wakelin & Nel, 2015). The reason why servant leadership has come forward as an attractive approach to leadership is because it concentrates on helping others, radiates integrity as a core value and gives precedence to the development of followers in reaching their full potential (Liden et al., 2015).

### **3.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES**

There are different types of leaders or leadership styles that emerge from the major leadership theories discussed throughout this chapter. Whether the underlying reason for leadership is seen from a trait, behavioural or situational perspective, some distinct leadership styles have come to light. It is important to note that a specific leader could take on a different style, depending on a number of unique factors, and is not constrained to only one style. However, leaders usually have a predisposition towards a certain style, which can be seen in the way they act and conduct themselves. This is usually established from the orientation of the leader; some leaders are highly task-oriented, while others place great significance on relationships, as indicated in many of the theories discussed. The orientation of the leader is of great importance, since it provides an indication of the direction of their interests. As described previously, an effective leader would be one who can manage to strike a balance between the task at hand and one's relationship with followers. A leader's task and relationship orientation is viewed on a spectrum, with varying degrees of interest on either side.

There are an abundance of theories that ultimately describe the way leaders function, as depicted by the various approaches to leadership. For instance, if an individual is a part of the in-group described in LMX theory, this individual is likely to be much more motivated and inspired to perform. This information has been provided to offer a background to leadership in order to increase our understanding of this extensive topic. Many of the theories do not offer defined leadership styles, but rather an explanation of leader behaviour. The most prominent types of leaders as identified in the literature review are summarised in Table 3.7.

**Table 3.7: Leadership Styles as Derived from the Literature**

<b>LEADERSHIP STYLES</b>
<p><b><u>Autocratic/Delegating/Initiating Structure:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Rules and regulations are dictated and enforced</li> <li>➤ Strict control is maintained over followers</li> <li>➤ Focus is on getting the task done</li> <li>➤ Relationship is purely professional</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Democratic/Participative/Consideration:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Followers are involved in decision making</li> <li>➤ Greater autonomy over work and tasks is given to followers</li> <li>➤ Emphasis is on relationships and people</li> <li>➤ Creates a pleasant working environment</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Laissez-faire:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Followers are given full responsibility and power over decision making</li> <li>➤ Leader takes a back seat</li> <li>➤ Allows followers to be in complete control</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Transactional:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Task-focused, with the aim to increase efficiency</li> <li>➤ Interaction seen as an exchange or transaction between leader and follower</li> <li>➤ Leaders use rewards and punishment as a means of leverage</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Transformational:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Challenge and inspire followers through mutual respect and trust</li> <li>➤ Focus is on transforming individuals to become self-empowered</li> <li>➤ Followers are motivated to attain the shared vision</li> <li>➤ Goals of followers are aligned with that of the leader and the organisation</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Charismatic:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Leaders use personal attributes to inspire followers</li> <li>➤ The perceived charismatic qualities of the leader entice followers to attain the leader's vision</li> <li>➤ Followers are dependent on the leader for direction</li> <li>➤ Individual goals may not be aligned to that of the leader and the organisation</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Authentic:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Focus is on ethical leadership</li> <li>➤ Leaders aim to use their integrity and uphold their beliefs under all circumstances</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>Servant:</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Emphasis is placed on the needs of the followers</li> <li>➤ Leaders serve their followers instead of pursuing self-interest</li> </ul>

These styles are very important for the purpose of this study, as one of the aims of this research was to determine whether the different leadership styles used by leaders or managers have an effect on the desire of women to stay with an organisation.

### **3.6 WOMEN AND LEADERSHIP**

The concept of women, their role in the new world of work and their journey into leadership positions was explored in detail in the previous chapter and forms a crucial part of the context of this research. Women were previously even excluded from leadership research, as was shown by the great man theory at the beginning of this chapter. Most researchers focused their efforts on understanding great male leaders and their influence on society. An interesting point to consider is that a considerable amount of the information that is now available regarding leadership was derived from studies conducted on men (Quick & Nelson, 2013). However, the rise of women in the world of work has forced researchers and management alike to accept that women are a fundamental component of organisations and of society as a whole. Women are fast becoming a major human resource investment for organisations, and their talents must be nurtured in order to promote growth and satisfaction and for organisations to gain a competitive edge. Unfortunately, this is not the case in many organisations, with women not being recognised for their abilities, leading them to eventually opt out of their jobs.

Barling (2014) is of the opinion that the topic of gender and leadership is a burning issue that generates a lot of passion and the least amount of logic amongst scholars. With the new focus on women in organisations who have an interest in leadership, researchers are now asking if there is a difference between the manner in which men and women lead (Quick & Nelson, 2013). Much of the research that has been conducted tends to lean towards gender stereotypes as a reason why women would indeed lead differently to men (Werhane & Painter-Morland, 2011). Taking it even further, Quick and Nelson (2013) proclaim that the view of a successful leader is seen as one who displays more male-oriented attributes than female-oriented attributes. Regarding the differences between male and female leaders – although an extremely fascinating topic, it is not related to the objectives of this research and therefore will not be discussed any further.

The current study aims to view leadership from two perspectives. The first perspective intends to determine the impact that different leadership styles have on the retention of women. The

second perspective is related to the predicament that women face in reaching leadership positions. Even though women are making progress in their respective fields, there is still a huge gap between where they are and where they should be. In her book, *Lean In*, Sheryl Sandberg, the chief operating officer of Facebook, states this problem very adequately by declaring, in blunt terms, that “men still run the world” (Sandberg, 2013, p. 5). What she means by this is that, despite the progress that women have certainly made in the past century, they are still more than a few steps behind their male counterparts. Specifically, when it comes down to leadership roles, women are sadly underrepresented by a vast margin (Barling, 2014).

A popular question that remains unanswered is the uncertainty regarding why such a low percentage of women manage to rise to top leadership positions (Werhane & Painter-Morland, 2011). Some of the factors that have hindered women’s advancement were discussed in the previous chapter, such as the glass ceiling, glass cliff and the leaking pipeline. Therefore, these challenges will not be delved into further, but have been mentioned to convey the many struggles that women may face in reaching top leadership positions. Every person, regardless of gender, aims to develop themselves, grow, advance and progress to a higher level, whether it be in a personal, professional or spiritual capacity. This brings to light the question of whether the opportunity to advance into leadership positions plays a part in the retention of women. The importance that women place on the prospect of leadership is analysed, and some important questions are asked: Are leadership positions appealing to women in organisations? Do they have a desire to grow in their careers? Ultimately, the question that must be asked is: are talented women willing to leave their organisations if they do not offer them the option to advance? Just how far women are willing to go to obtain higher positions is a topic that must be addressed. Therefore, the presence of opportunities for advancement into leadership positions will be examined as a possible retention factor in this study.

### **3.7 SUMMARY**

The primary goal of this chapter was to provide a background to leadership as a concept. This was a difficult task, since leadership is not as simple to describe as it may seem. Leadership is a complex web of theories, studies and approaches that have all come together to form the body of knowledge that forms current leadership research. First off, the concept of leadership was scrutinised and an explanation was offered. As an extension of the meaning of leadership, the difference between leadership and management was noted. The next section concentrated

on the development of leadership theories, and this formed the focal point of this chapter. The reason why leadership theories have received such considerable attention is because they form the basis of our very understanding of what leadership is. Without these theories it would be almost impossible to determine a specific leadership style or explain a leader's behaviour.

Leadership theories comprise the following:

- Great man theory: leaders are born and not made, and leaders possess great God-like qualities. This theory completely ignored the possibility of women leaders.
- Trait theory: leadership is attributed to the characteristics, attributes and abilities that leaders possess. These traits are innate and, once again, leaders are born and not made.
- Behavioural theories: leadership can be defined by the behaviour and skills of the leader, these skills can be taught and leaders can be developed by learning leader behaviour. In this case, leaders are made and do not necessarily have to be born with certain traits or qualities. Studies that set the benchmark for future leadership research were conducted under this category.
- Contingency theories: These theories further developed leadership research by addressing the question of the role that the situation plays in the degree of leader effectiveness. Good leaders are able to adapt their leadership style or approach to the unique circumstances of their followers and the environment.

Each of these theories comprises different studies and subcategories. The focus of theories then shifted to more specific approaches to leadership, such as transactional, transformational, charismatic, authentic and servant leadership. Transformational leadership and charismatic leadership were described in detail, as they encompass such an integral part of leadership research. The differences between the two were also noted for clarity. Authentic leadership and servant leadership were addressed briefly. Thereafter, the different leadership styles derived from the literature were illustrated to be able to distinguish between them easily. The identification of the different leadership styles is of immense importance to the study, as it examines the effect that the different leadership styles have on the retention of women. Understanding these styles and the underlying context could not be overemphasised. The last section included a discussion of women in leadership and, more specifically, their lack of advancement in this area. Once again, this aspect plays a vital role in the current research, as the presence of opportunities to advance into leadership positions will also be explored as a possible retention factor.

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the final literature chapter of this study and it therefore serves a vital role and provides the requisite link between the variables. The primary objective of this research was to identify the main factors that could help to retain women in higher education. In order for this to be accomplished, the concept of retention first had to be analysed. This was followed by a background to the different theories of retention to offer insight into this interesting issue. The significance of employee retention has come forward in response to the complex problem of losing talented individuals. As a result, organisations have come to realise the value of incorporating strong retention practices into their business strategy. The attention surrounding this topic is also highly relevant at a time when there is an ongoing 'war for talent', as it has come to be known. Highly skilled individuals are in demand and organisations must ensure that they do not lose these resources. Retention is becoming more and more crucial to ensure organisational success and to minimise turnover costs and drops in productivity levels.

More specifically, this study aimed to address the retention of women because they represent a unique and undervalued source of talent. As noted in Chapter 2, women form a fundamental component of South Africa's economy and have proven their worth in the working world. The impetus now lies in organisations to take heed of their value and to put measures in place to retain the women they employ.

Of immense importance to this study was the identification of retention factors. For this purpose, a thorough assessment of the literature was conducted to classify some of the factors that have been found in previous studies.

As this study is viewed from a leadership point of view, the effect that leadership has on retention comprises a large part of this study. The first perspective of leadership takes into account the effect that different leadership styles may have on the retention of women. The second leadership perspective aims to determine to what extent the presence of leadership opportunities plays a role in retaining employees, and women in particular. These leadership perspectives are examined further in the course of this chapter.

This chapter also provides a general overview of other retention factors. The context of this study has reference here, as in the new world of work there is a constant need for positive work-life balance and flexibility. Therefore retention factors that support these types of initiatives are required and factors that aid retention by supporting work-life balance were examined.

The chapter concludes with best practices and recommendations for the effective retention of employees, along with a brief summary of the chapter's findings.

## **4.2 THE CONCEPT AND VALUE OF RETENTION**

Retention is not a new topic. However, it has received much more attention in recent years and has become a serious challenge for organisations. In the Harvard Business Review on *Finding and Keeping the Best People* it is suggested that, although appointing talented and suitable employees is difficult, retaining them is a much harder task to accomplish (Butler & Waldoorp, 2011). Unfortunately, many people do not understand the true meaning of retention. For this reason, the concept of retention is broken down to provide a clearer understanding of it.

Employee retention simply refers to the policies and programmes used in organisations to encourage employees to stay with their organisations and to prevent them from leaving (Hong, Hao, Kumar, Ramendran & Kadiresan, 2012). Another definition describes retention as the number of employees who consciously decide to stay with the organisation (Carsen, 2005). Yet another definition refers to the capacity of the organisation to hold on to their staff (Byrd, 2014). Retention therefore refers to the efforts of the organisation to encourage its employees to choose to remain with the organisation. Das and Baruah (2013) explain that employee retention can be described as the process of supporting employees to stay with the organisation for a long period of time. In simple terms, the purpose of retaining employees is to keep talent in the organisation for as long as possible. From the descriptions above it can be noted that the implementation of different initiatives that will help prevent the loss of talented employees is indeed an important factor to be considered.

The global demand for talent has triggered an increase in competition amongst companies, which has led to more individuals leaving their organisations in pursuit of better prospects. This fits into the context of the twenty-first century's new world of work, which was discussed in

Chapter 2. Individuals are no longer restricted to one job with one organisation for the rest of their working life; instead, the new world of work is seen as a limitless realm of possibilities. In a special edition of the *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, this very topic was addressed by Coetzee and Gunz (2012), who point out that the worldwide competitive market has emerged due to globalisation and demographic transformations. This has led to a more distinct workforce with greater resources of knowledge and skills. They go on to explain that organisations are finally realising the value of retaining employees from all demographic backgrounds, which plays a major role in enhancing the performance of the organisation and creating a competitive advantage (Coetzee & Gunz, 2012). As Mahal (2012) so adequately states, today's workforce has seen an increase in expertise and a decrease in organisational commitment.

This has resulted in the 'war for talent', which simply implies that the demand for skilled workers is far outweighing the supply. The term was coined in 1997 in a study conducted by McKinsey & Company, who championed the view that talent is worth fighting for and more attention should be paid to the aspect of retaining talent (Devine & Syrett, 2014; Michaels, Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). The same study saw the emergence of research under the banner of talent management (Festing & Schafer, 2014). Most organisations have now come to realise that retaining their talented employees is a much better option than attracting and recruiting new employees.

Craig (2015) explores the cost effectiveness of retaining employees in comparison to recruiting new talent, and the results are not surprising. He found that it is indeed a much better option to retain the talent that is currently available than to go searching for new talent (Craig, 2015). In his book on best practices in attracting and retaining talent, Paine (2011) explains that the notion of helping employees to be happier, more productive and more committed has always taken a back seat to the bottom line, cutting costs and standardisation. However, the very concept of talent management in itself provides a wealth of opportunities for organisations that choose to take heed. Paine (2011) likens the view of talent management to a boiling point. He remarks that the more it is ignored or shuffled to the side-lines, the stronger it emerges, and it is soon coming to a point where it simply cannot be disregarded any longer. The time has come for organisations to take note of the importance of attracting and retaining talented employees. Retention and talent management are concepts that go hand in hand and, if performed correctly, the returns could be remarkable in terms of cost-saving, moderating declines in

productivity levels and in making good business sense overall. The increased value of attracting and retaining individuals from all walks of life has been established as a tool to improve performance and, in turn, the organisation's competitive advantage (Torrington, Hall, Taylor & Atkinson, 2009).

Since companies largely invest in their employees through recruitment, selection and training, it would be senseless to ignore the need for retention strategies and plans. As Rathi and Lee (2015) express, organisational performance is inseparable from talent management. In order to get the best out of their investment, organisations must aim to retain productive employees (Cardy & Lengnick-Hall, 2011). Human resources, or the human element, provide an invaluable contribution to organisations and, by placing emphasis on retaining employees, companies are giving themselves the competitive edge that is so crucial in current times. Cardy and Lengnick-Hall (2011) explain that human capital – if developed and nurtured appropriately – is one of those rare resources that can provide a competitive advantage to organisations. In support of this, it was found that engaged employees and good human resource practices can have a great impact on the competitive advantage of an organisation (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015). Armstrong (2010) points out that it is not sufficient for organisations to recruit talented individuals without retention strategies in place to keep talented employees within the organisation.

Talented employees should not merely be seen as abstract subjects but, more importantly, their needs, inclinations and expectations must also be considered (Thunnissen, Boselie & Fruytier, 2013). By virtue of their human nature employees are multifaceted creatures that have opinions and feelings which will influence their decision to remain with or to leave an organisation. It is evident then why retention is such a complex issue, taking into consideration that each person's needs are different, depending on aspects such as gender, age, children – the list is endless. Organisations struggle to provide an all-inclusive approach to retention strategies, since there will always be something lacking for someone at any point in time. As such, the retention of employees poses an enormous challenge for virtually every organisation in the twenty-first century (Rathi & Lee, 2015). The correct identification of the factors that affect employee retention is crucial and will determine the overall success of retention initiatives undertaken by organisations.

### 4.3 EMPLOYEE TURNOVER: REASONS AND REFLECTIONS

A key link to employee retention stems from employee turnover rates. A large amount of research has focused on what makes employees leave organisations (Ang, Bartram, McNeil, Leggat & Stanton, 2013; Branham, 2012; Joe, Yoong & Patel, 2013). In *The Employee Retention Handbook*, Taylor (2002) contends that employee turnover is extremely harmful for organisations under any circumstances. Without even considering the huge costs related to recruitment and selection, turnover could also cause other negative consequences, such as decreasing the morale of employees, causing a decline in the performance of the organisation, and it could also interfere with communication and social paradigms (Huffman, Casper & Payne, 2014). In addition, voluntary turnover signifies a huge waste of the resources and time of an organisation (Taylor, 2002). In general, turnover by itself refers to employees leaving the workforce and subsequently being replaced, while voluntary turnover refers specifically to the tendency of employees to leave their jobs or tender their resignation out of their own volition and free will in order to pursue opportunities elsewhere. Turnover basically relates to the rate of departure of employees from an organisation.

It is no secret that the new generations of employees are constantly searching for better prospects and will consider leaving at a moment's notice. This once again emphasises the importance of organisations making every effort to retain their employees. Employee turnover poses a number of challenges for organisations, such as financial performance aspects, decreased morale of existing employees, loss of skilled workers, replacement costs and the demand on training needs (Reiche, 2008). In a recent study, Younge and Marx (2015) examined the value that could be gained by organisations that deter employees from leaving and found that retaining employees actually has an impact on the overall value of the firm.

In line with the current study, if employees could be successfully retained it would imply a drop in voluntary turnover rates, which would benefit the organisation by reducing costs, amongst other benefits. Craig (2015) stresses the importance of internal movement (vertical and lateral) and internal talent identification as opposed to recruiting new employees in the light of the rising costs of employee turnover. It must be noted, however, that reducing employee turnover is not only cost efficient, but also is a strategic priority (Kwenin, Muathe & Nzulwa, 2013). An organisation cannot truly succeed if it suffers from a high employee turnover rate, as in essence this would imply that employees are not happy at the organisation. The effective management of

human resources must take into account the dire need not only to manage, but also to retain, current employees, as they are the manpower that drives the organisation forward and, as such, their needs must be taken into account.

According to Taylor (2014), the primary causes of turnover can be divided into four groups and are presented in the table below:

**Table 4.1: Causes of Employee Turnover**

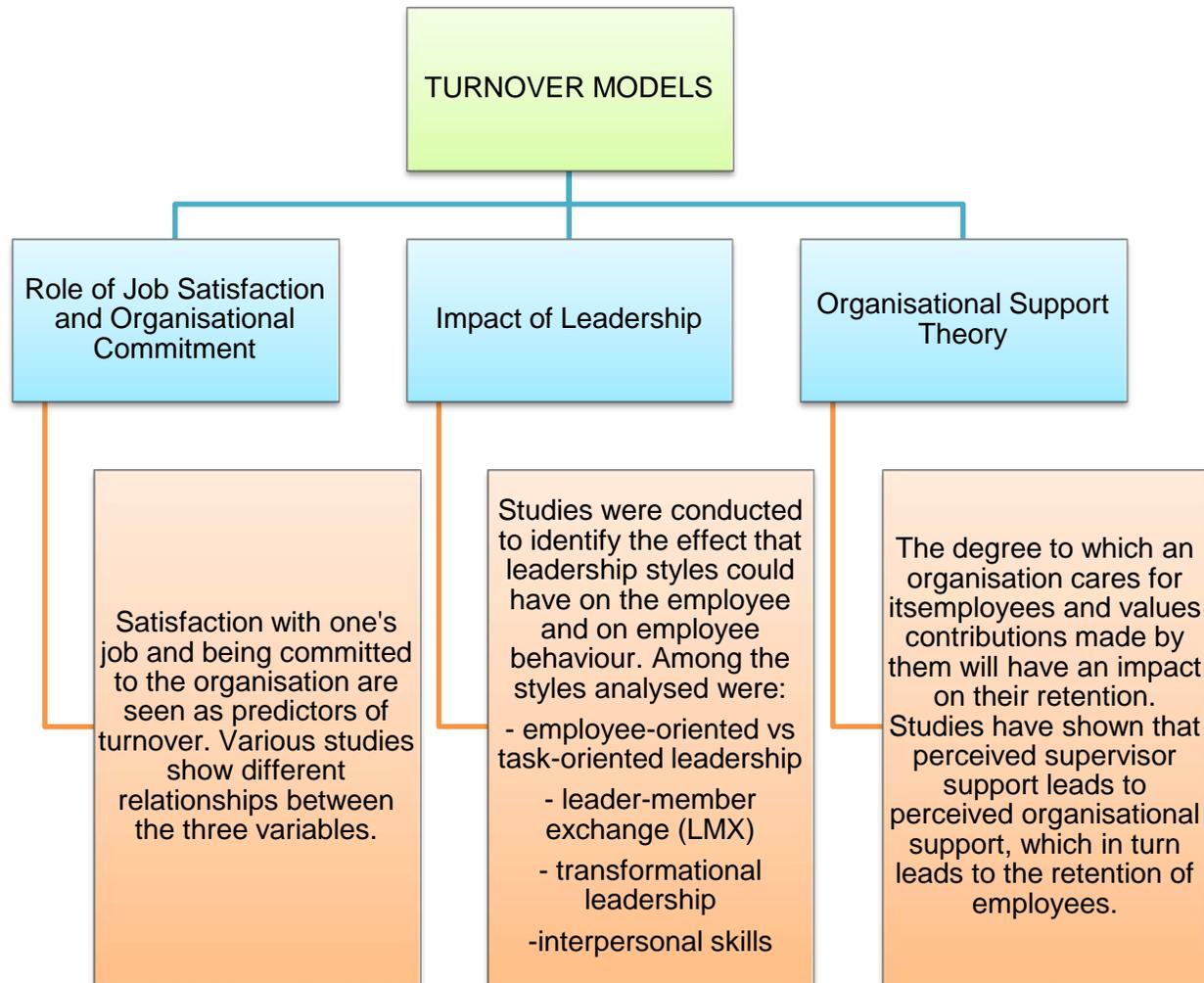
Causes of Turnover	Description
<b>Pull Factors</b>	The main cause is the certain temptation and attractiveness of other employment. This signifies that the employee is being <b>pulled</b> towards another organisation.
<b>Push Factors</b>	The major cause is that the employee perceives a problem with the existing employer or organisation. The employee feels as if he/she is being <b>pushed</b> out of the organisation due to unpleasant circumstances.
<b>Unavoidable Turnover</b>	This category is self-explanatory in that some causes of turnover are completely <b>unavoidable</b> and out of the control of the employee and the organisation. An example would be retirement.
<b>Involuntary Turnover</b>	This type of turnover is instigated by the organisation. The employee would have been happy to remain with the organisation had they not been compelled to leave. Hence it is termed as <b>involuntary</b> on the part of the employee.

*Source: Adapted from Taylor (2014)*

From the information provided in Table 4.1, the type of turnover that would be most dangerous to organisations occurs when 'push factors' are present. These types of factors should be minimised as much as is practically possible in order for employees to stay committed to their organisations. It is crucial for organisations to correctly identify the factors that help retain talented employees. This would help to reduce the occurrence of employees feeling obliged to leave their organisations.

In her book on hidden reasons why employees leave an organisation, Branham (2012) also speaks about push and pull factors or, as she likes to call them – triggers. She asserts that certain events could lead to employees gradually or swiftly disengaging from their jobs. These events trigger a feeling of detachment and could lead to employees leaving their organisations (Branham, 2012). Taylor (2002) defends this assumption and refers back to the founding research conducted by Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel and Hill (1999), who indicated that employees do not always indulge in careful consideration and deliberation on whether or not to leave their organisation. Instead, the decision occurs after they are exposed to an unplanned shocking event (trigger) that forces them into thinking about leaving. Reasons or triggering events are diverse, ranging from missing a promotion to having a heart attack at work. Hewlett and Luce (2011) also explore push and pull factors, but their focus falls on women specifically and the reasons for taking off-ramps from their careers. Their research has shown that amongst the top reasons that pull women away from their jobs are caring for children, elders or other family members, whilst among the reasons that push women out of their jobs are low levels of job satisfaction, under-stimulation, lack of opportunity and, in rare cases, work overload (Hewlett & Luce, 2011). As can be seen, turnover research involves a complex maze of reasons that must be explored in order for employee retention to take place.

In a recent article exploring the relationship between supervisory support and employee turnover, it was stated that turnover has been studied from three broad perspectives (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursiere, & Raymond, 2016). These three perspectives are shown in Figure 4.1.



**Figure 4.1: Turnover Models**

*Source: Adapted from Mathieu et al. (2016)*

Figure 4.1 provides a good background to the topics that have emerged in turnover research. If looked at holistically, the main focus is on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, leadership and organisational support. These elements have the potential to either help retain staff on the one hand, or to increase turnover rates on the other. It is interesting to note that leadership falls on this list due to its relevance to the current study. Deery (2008) also notes that different themes have emerged in turnover research, although she categorises them into four themes: the impact of 1) job satisfaction and organisational commitment, 2) personal attributes of job stress, 3) the role of work-life balance initiatives on turnover, and 4) strategies to increase the retention rate of employees.

There are many reasons why employees would leave their organisations and this, in turn, explains why employee turnover could have a variety of causes. Turnover research cannot only focus on the fact that employees have left, but the underlying reasons for their departure should also be addressed. Anvari, JianFu and Chermahini (2014) point out that the reasons why employees leave are of extreme importance and could have consequences for future retention rates, employee engagement and job satisfaction, and for the recruitment and selection of talent. To understand why employees leave their jobs, a few of the reasons found in the literature are shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Reasons for Employee Turnover**

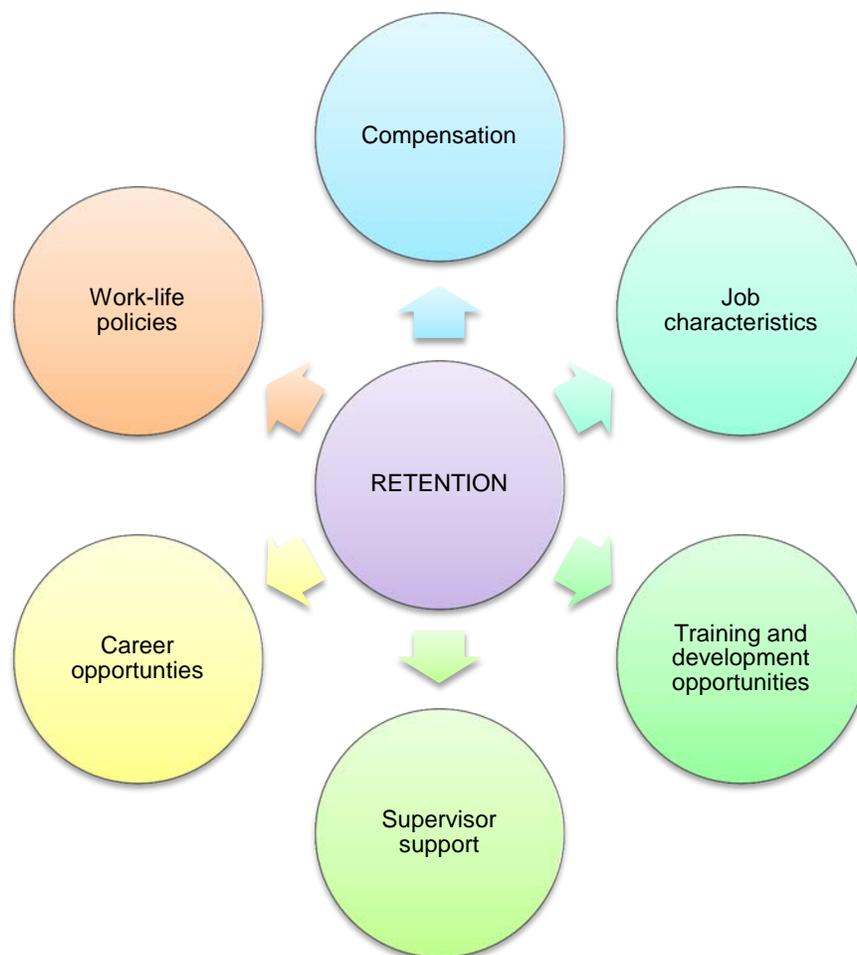
<b>Reasons for Leaving</b>	<b>Cited by Scholars</b>
<b>Pay and pay-related variables</b>	Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) Martin (2003) Westcott (2003)
<b>Compensation</b>	Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2003) Ramlall (2003)
<b>Perceived supervisor support (PSS) Perceived organisational support (POS)</b>	Guchait, Cho and Meurs (2015)
<b>Personal shocks (personal major life-changing circumstances)</b>	Branham (2012) Taylor (2002) Lee et al. (1999)
<b>Lack of growth opportunities</b>	Ramlall (2003)
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Das and Baruah (2013)
<b>Child and elder care</b>	Hewlett and Luce (2011)
<b>Working conditions</b>	Westcott (2003)

#### **4.4 RETENTION FACTORS: RESEARCH FINDINGS**

Retention factors are those factors that either assist employees in their decision to remain with an organisation or to leave the organisation, and that can aid or impede their retention (Netswera et al., 2005). The factors that could possibly affect the retention of employees are extremely vast and diverse, and their study could encompass an entire research project on its own. For this reason only some of the factors are presented in this study.

#### 4.4.1 The Retention Factor Measurement Scale

From a South African perspective, six fundamental factors have been identified as central to the issue of employee retention. The factors presented in Figure 4.2 have been identified by Döckel (2003) and then further expanded upon by Döckel, Basson and Coetzee (2006). It has come to be known as the retention factor measurement scale. Each factor in this model is considered in brief detail, while only a succinct identification of the factors will be presented for the models that follow.



**Figure 4.2: Retention Factors**

*Source: Adapted from Döckel (2003)*

Each factor presented by Döckel et al. (2006) and Döckel (2003) is discussed.

➤ Compensation:

Monetary compensation and intangible benefits play a role in the retention of staff. Since every person requires money to live, the perceived equality and fairness of the pay system and pay scale are of high importance to individuals when deciding to stay with an organisation. There are some benefits that have been identified as important, but that may be more effective if adapted to unique needs or personal preferences. In the study by Döckel (2003), 'time off' was presented as a very important factor in the retention of high-technology employees.

➤ Job characteristics:

The nature of the job also plays a big role in the retention of employees. Factors such as the degree of autonomy, the provision of challenging and interesting work, the variety of the tasks required and the extent to which skills are used will be taken into account. Employees are more likely to stay with an organisation if these requirements are met.

➤ Training and development opportunities:

It is evident that the world of work is changing. In order for employees to keep up with the latest trends, such as globalisation and technology, there is an urgent need for training and development initiatives. Employees will be inclined to stay with an organisation that takes their development needs into account and that commits to providing the necessary training. As an extension of this, employees will likely remain with an organisation that supports learning and career development, as well as one that provides the opportunity to apply their skills (Cataldo, Van Assen, & D'Alessandro, 2000). This factor supports the current study, which aimed to investigate the relationship between retention and leadership opportunities or opportunities for growth. Training and development signify progress and advancement.

➤ Supervisor support:

One of the key retention factors identified that has specific value to this study is the aspect of supervisory support. Employees will likely be retained if their supervisors recognise their work, provide valuable feedback and reward them for their performance. Feedback encourages optimistic feelings towards the organisation and may even help avoid early turnover intentions. This factor is very important to the current study, since it deals directly with one of the research variables – leadership style.

➤ Career opportunities:

The prospect of advancing in one's career is highly valued by employees. For this reason the availability of career opportunities has also been identified as a retention factor. Career opportunities could refer to a number of practices implemented by an organisation, such as training, promotion and employment security.

Once again this factor links up with the current study. One of the perspectives of leadership taken by this study is that leadership opportunities, or the opportunity to advance in one's career, is related to employee retention. One could argue that career opportunities and leadership opportunities are very similar. In order to develop in his/her career, an individual must be presented with the opportunity to grow. Development in itself refers to advancing, progressing and moving forward. Hence in this study we refer to it as a leadership opportunity that indicates moving forward from one position into a higher position with greater leadership prospects.

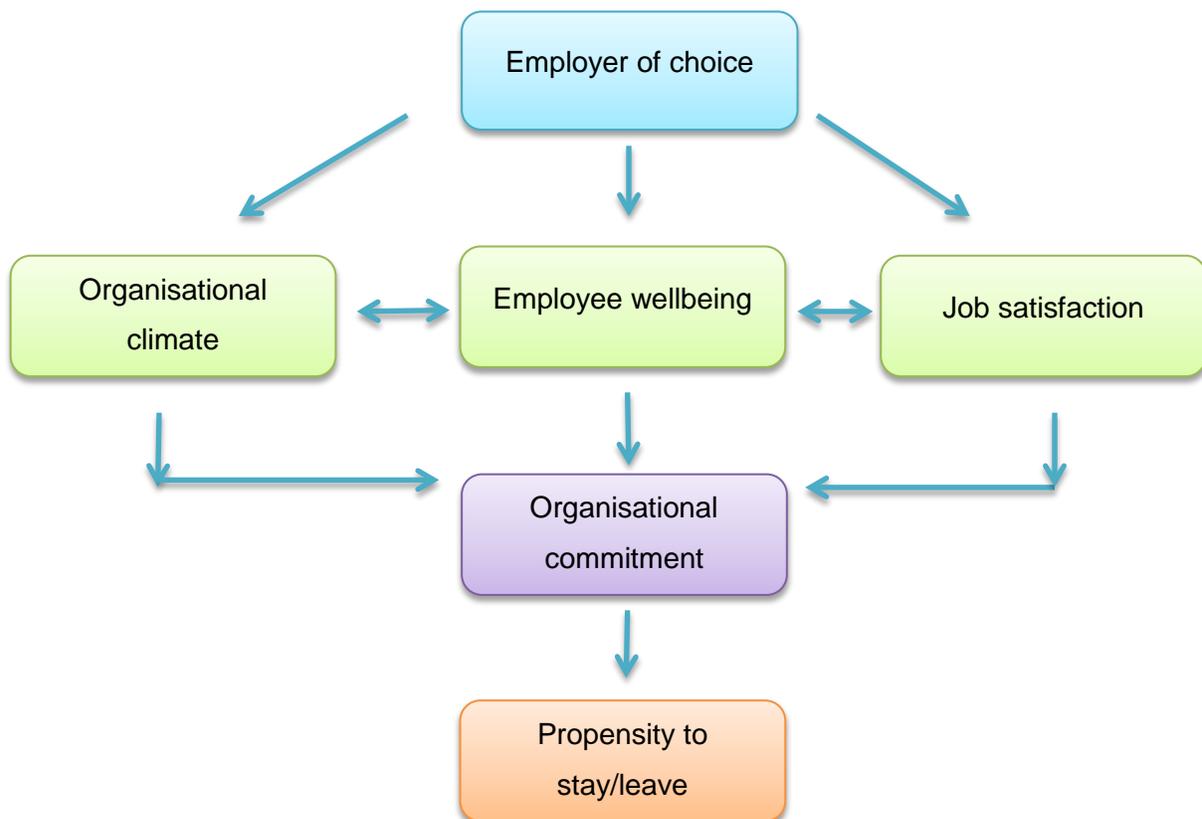
➤ Work-life policies

The adoption of work-life policies or family-friendly initiatives has been regarded as important by employees when deciding whether to leave an organisation. Work-life policies refer to policies aimed at providing a better balance between work and life, and these include, but are not limited to, Flexible Work Arrangements (alternate arrangements in terms of working hours or place of work), leave policies that accommodate the needs of the family, and child and eldercare assistance. As mentioned previously, work-life balance is central to the retention of staff in the twenty-first century's new world of work, in which the concept of the 24/7 workplace has emerged.

#### **4.4.2 Veldsman's Employee Commitment Model**

Another model that suggests factors that would affect employees' inclination to remain with or to leave an organisation is Veldsman's Employee Commitment Model (2003). The model is shown in Figure 4.3. This model was incorporated in a study conducted by Kotzé and Roodt (2005), which clustered retention factors into three categories, namely:

- *Organisational climate*: Lasting characteristic of an organisation that represents the shared perceptions of the organisation by its members. This could refer to different facets of the organisation, such as fairness, support, recognition and innovation.
- *Employee wellbeing*: this category refers to the overall state of the employee. Factors such as training and development, skills enhancement, advancement opportunities, positive working conditions, better pay and fair treatment were noted under this category.
- *Job satisfaction*: the degree to which employees perceive their jobs to be satisfying in terms of important qualities as identified by the employee.



**Figure 4.3: Veldsman's Employee Commitment Model**

Source: Adapted from Kotzé & Roodt (2005); Veldsman (2003)

Figure 4.3 illustrates how the three factors mentioned above first have an impact on organisational commitment and thereafter on an employee's resolution to either stay with the organisation or to leave. Simply put, this means that organisational climate, employee wellbeing and job satisfaction will have a direct impact on the dedication and obligation that employees

have towards their organisations or employers, which in turn will influence their decisions to stay or leave.

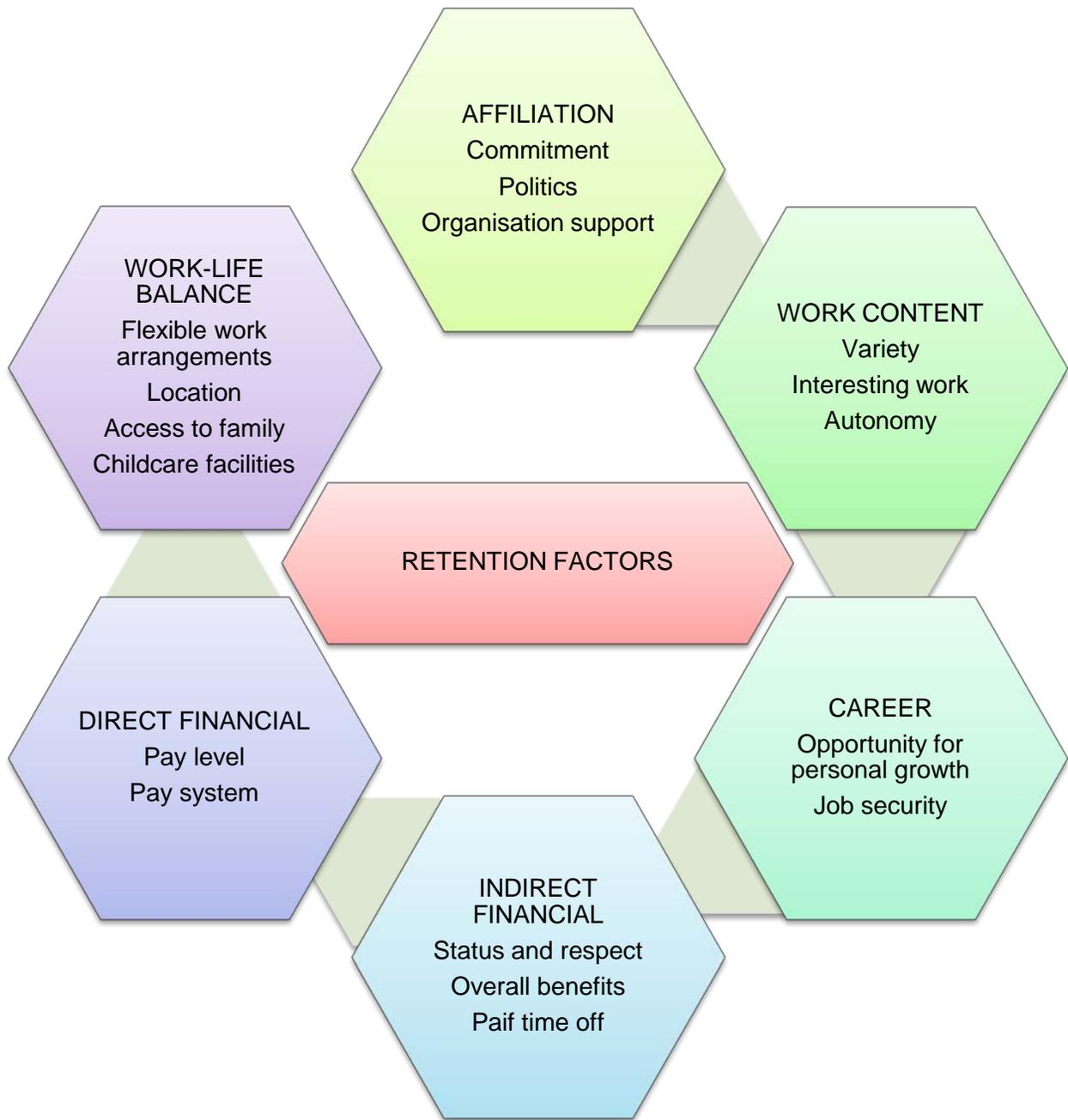
Organisational commitment refers to employees' commitment towards the organisation. Srivastava and Dhar (2016) explain that organisational commitment actually refers to the core desire of employees to continue to be a part of the organisation. Employee commitment is defined as the sense of allegiance and loyalty that individuals have toward their organisations, which results in the acceptance of organisational goals, strategies and values (Tangen, 2005). Committed employees are drawn to attaining organisational goals and providing the best possible service to the organisation in order to remain active members of that organisation (Dhar, 2015). Meyer and Allen (1991) have divided organisational commitment into three categories: affective (emotional attachment to organisation), continuance (economic necessity) and normative (moral obligation) commitment.

There are many benefits that could be achieved by realising a committed workforce; however, the one that is most significant to this study is retaining employees. This aspect was further explored by Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012), who examined the link between organisational commitment and retention factors in the South African context. In all of the studies conducted, a significant positive relationship was found between organisational commitment and employees' relative satisfaction with the retention factors present in their organisations (Döckel, 2003; Döckel et al., 2006; Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). From this brief explanation of organisational commitment it is evident that the concept of retaining staff is intricately linked to having a loyal, satisfied and committed workforce. For this reason, the model presented by Veldsman (2003) was included here.

#### **4.4.3 The Rewards of Work**

Britton, Chadwick and Walker (1999) conducted a study in the late 1990s on the rewards of work which still has relevance today. In their study, they developed a model that categorised the rewards of work into five retention categories: affiliation, work content, career, indirect financial and direct financial rewards (Britton et al., 1999). When reviewing the literature, Munsamy and Bosch Venter (2009) added one more category to the rewards matrix, namely work-life balance. The main proposition of the model is that certain rewards or a combination thereof will lead to increased retention of employees as well high performance levels (Britton et al., 1999;

Munsamy & Bosch Venter, 2009). A major finding of the time was that pay was not the only or most important retention driver found (Britton et al., 1999). The concept of rewards as a factor of retention is supported by the study conducted by Kwenin et al. (2013). The model is presented in Figure 4.4, which outlines the main factors under each retention category.

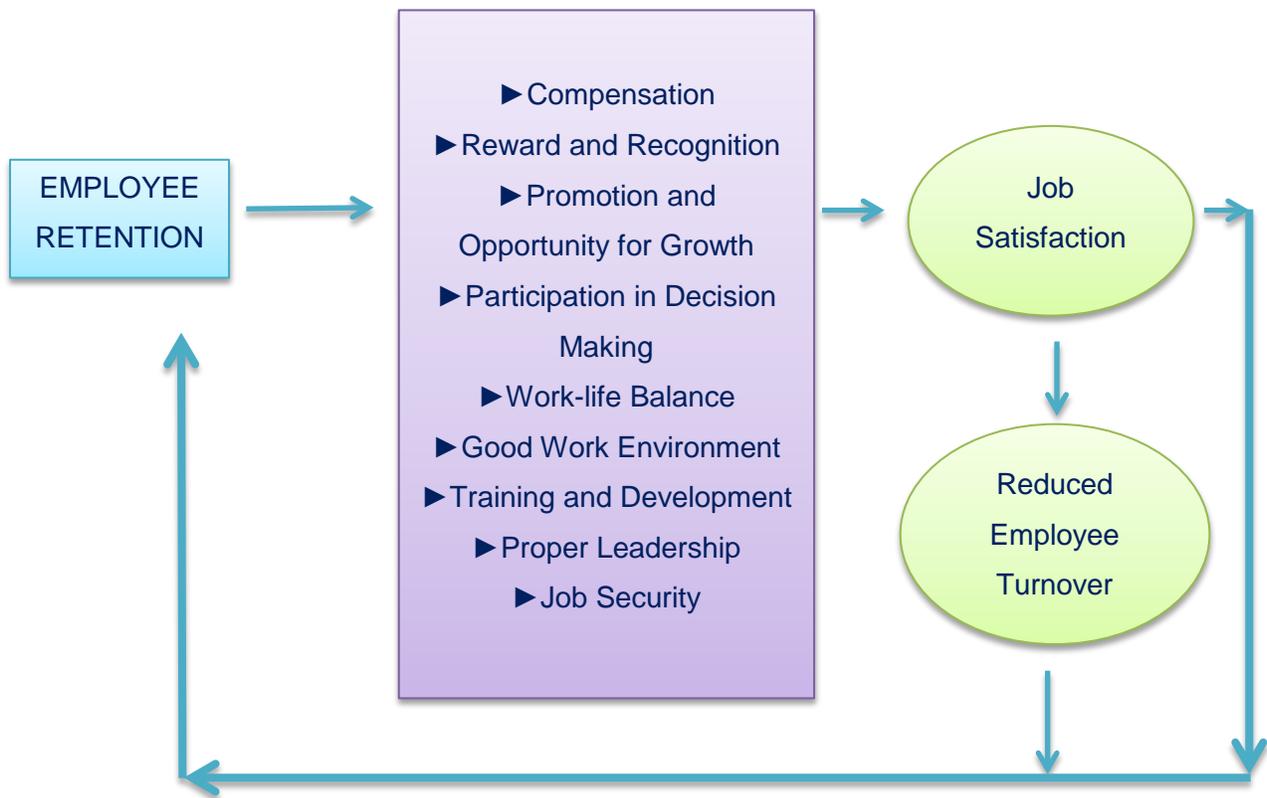


**Figure 4.4: Retention Factors Framework**

Source: Adapted from Britton et al. (1999); Munsamy & Bosch Venter (2009)

#### 4.4.4 The Employee Retention and Job Satisfaction Model

In addition to the models shown above, Das and Baruah (2013) have proposed an employee retention and job satisfaction model that specifies that certain factors have an impact on job satisfaction, which in turn has a direct relationship with retention. They determined the factors by conducting a thorough review of the literature on this crucial topic. They offered nine factors as key to the retention dynamic and that if present in an organisation, could drastically reduce an employee's intention to leave (Das & Baruah, 2013). Figure 4.5 displays the model, as well as the suggested factors and their relationship with job satisfaction.



**Figure 4.5: The Employee Retention and Job Satisfaction Model**

*Source: Adapted from Das & Baruah (2013)*

It would be difficult to explore each of the factors identified in each of the models in great detail. However, for the purpose of this study, the four models presented are summarised in Table 4.3 and the factors that are relevant to the present study are highlighted.

**Table 4.3: Comparison of Models**

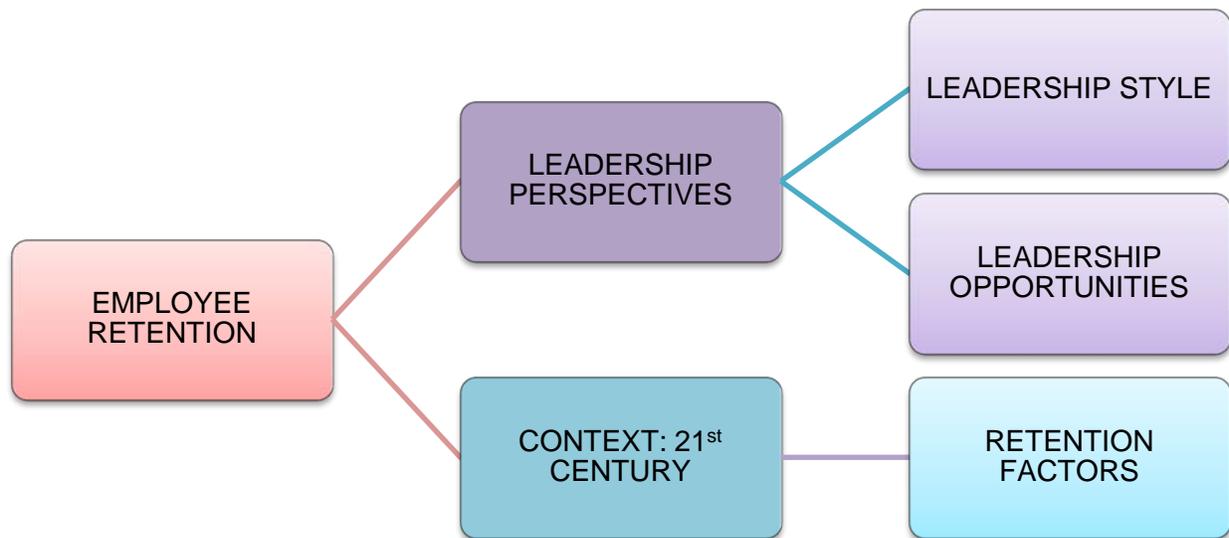
	<b>Retention Factor Measurement Scale</b>	<b>Veldsman's Employee Commitment Model</b>	<b>Rewards of Work</b>	<b>Employee Retention &amp; Job Satisfaction Model</b>
<b>Scholar/s</b>	Döckel (2003) Döckel et al. (2006)	Veldsman (2003)	Britton et al. (1999) Munsamy and Bosch Venter (2009)	Das and Baruah (2013)
<b>Retention Factors Identified</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Compensation</li> <li>➤ Career opportunities</li> <li>➤ Supervisor support</li> <li>➤ Training and development opportunities</li> <li>➤ Job characteristics</li> <li>➤ Work-life policies</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Organisational climate</li> <li>➤ Employee wellbeing</li> <li>➤ Job satisfaction</li> <li>➤ Organisational commitment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Affiliation</li> <li>➤ Work content</li> <li>➤ Career</li> <li>➤ Direct financial</li> <li>➤ Indirect financial</li> <li>➤ Work-life balance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Compensation</li> <li>➤ Reward and recognition</li> <li>➤ Promotion and opportunity for growth</li> <li>➤ Participation in decision making</li> <li>➤ Work-life balance</li> <li>➤ Good work environment</li> <li>➤ Training and development</li> <li>➤ Proper leadership</li> <li>➤ Job security</li> </ul>
<b>Main Emphasis</b>	South African context. After considerable research, six key retention factors were	Employee retention factors are classified under three broad dimensions that firstly	Employees' preferences for rewards provided by their organisations were studied. This research led	Factors were recognised as central to the issue of job satisfaction. If these factors are present,

	<b>Retention Factor Measurement Scale</b>	<b>Veldsman's Employee Commitment Model</b>	<b>Rewards of Work</b>	<b>Employee Retention &amp; Job Satisfaction Model</b>
	identified.	affect one's commitment to the organisation and ultimately one's propensity to stay/leave.	to an indication of critical retention drivers.	employees will likely be more satisfied with their jobs, which leads to lower turnover rates and hence increased employee retention.
<b>Relevance to Current Study</b>	Although all six factors could in some way be relevant to the current study, the four factors that stand out are <i>training and development, career opportunities, supervisor support</i> and <i>work-life policies</i> . These factors are undoubtedly related to the current study due to their focus on leadership, growth and work-life balance.	The categories of retention factors found in this model are not openly linked to the current study. However, upon closer inspection it was noted that, since the category of employee wellbeing includes aspects such as <i>opportunities for growth, training and skills enhancement</i> , it is actually associated with the leadership opportunities perspective.	The classifications of <i>affiliation, career</i> and <i>work-life balance</i> are intricately connected to the issues of both leadership perspectives in this study, as well as the context of the twenty-first-century new world of work.	Once again, all the factors identified are associated with retention and the current study by some means. The main factors that could be extracted from this model that have particular relevance to the current study are <i>promotion</i> and <i>opportunity for growth, work-life balance</i> and <i>proper leadership</i> .

## 4.5 RETENTION FACTORS: PRESENT STUDY

In the present study the primary research objective was to determine the factors that have an effect on the retention of women. This is one dimension of the study. The second dimension viewed retention from the perspective of leadership. The researcher acknowledges that there are numerous factors that play a role in retaining employees, as was discussed in the models presented. Therefore, the present study makes room for such factors under the banner of the general retention factors that have emerged in recent years and that may or may not be related to leadership in some way. In addition, since the twenty-first century new world of work shapes the wider context of this study, certain matters that are specific to this context must be recognised as critical to this study. For instance the advancements in technology that have brought with them new possibilities of work schedules, the change in the very idea of what constitutes a workplace, the increase in flexibility and family-friendly leave are issues that cannot be overlooked. Together with the context, the nature of the specific target group, namely women, encourages the urgent need to also explore work-life balance initiatives as a category of retention factors. This includes all types of plans that organisations may propose to help increase the work-life balance of women, which in turn could have an impact on their desire to remain with their organisations.

Figure 4.6 puts the focus of this study into context. It shows how retention is viewed from a leadership perspective within the larger context of the twenty-first century new world of work. In turn, leadership is viewed from two angles – 1) the influence of leadership style on employee retention and 2) the availability or prospect of leadership opportunities. The context of the twenty-first century new world of work then provides general retention factors, which would include the impact of work-life balance initiatives on retention.



**Figure 4.6: Figurative Representation of Present Study**

#### **4.5.1 Leadership Styles as a Retention Factor**

The issue of people leaving their organisations due to poor relationships with their managers is perpetual. It is now widely accepted that people no longer quit their organisations, but that they rather quit their leaders. Lipman (2015) reports on this very issue by examining the prevalence of and reasons why people are leaving because of their managers. He explains that, if the wrong person is placed in a management position, nothing else matters and the consequences could be detrimental (Lipman, 2015). In an extensive research project, Hay (2002) reports that, when ranking factors that contribute to employee turnover, an unpleasant relationship with one's supervisor ranked as the second highest. In another report that was conducted in South Africa and that included human resource and training managers, it was found that management style emerged as the leading retention factor (Meyer, 2005). Supervisor/employee relations could also have an effect on an employee's overall job satisfaction, which is linked to organisational commitment and ultimately has an impact on an employee's inclination to stay or leave the organisation (Kotzé & Roodt, 2005).

The aim of this study was to determine whether the leadership style on offer and the manner in which a leader is perceived by an employee is related to employee retention. It is worth noting that a number of studies have found that supervisory support is linked to intentions to stay with

the organisation (Das & Baruah, 2013; Döckel et al., 2006; Goh, Ilies & Wilson, 2015). In one study, Mathieu et al. (2016) found that task-centred leadership had less of an impact on turnover intentions than person-centred leadership. This is evident since employees who feel more connected to their supervisor would more likely want to stay with the organisation. Consistent with this finding, Lok and Crawford (1999) found that organisational commitment and job satisfaction were less influenced by task-centred leadership than by compassionate leadership. This clearly indicates that leadership style does have an effect on the satisfaction of employees and their intention to stay.

One of the aims of the current study was to determine how and whether a specific leadership style impacts on the retention of employees. This aspect will be further explored in the empirical study.

#### **4.5.2 Leadership Opportunities as a Retention Factor**

In this study, leadership opportunities signify the prospect of employees being given the chance to advance in their careers, possibly into leadership positions. It denotes evolution and development as critical underlying concepts. As shown in the findings from previous research in section 4.4, factors such as career opportunities, training and development, employee wellbeing, promotion and opportunities for growth have all been highlighted as key retention factors (Britton et al., 1999; Das & Baruah, 2013; Döckel, 2003; Veldsman, 2003). Each of these factors, in turn, embraces the same fundamental concept of growth, which is the major driver of leadership opportunities as a retention factor. Corresponding to these outcomes, the researcher believes that the value assigned by employees to this aspect must be explored further. Logical thought leads one to believe that employee retention will suffer if employees do not find their jobs to be fulfilling in terms of growth, advancement and development.

#### **4.5.3 Retention Factors**

Since there is such an abundance of information on employee retention, the researcher created a category for general retention factors that are not grouped into a specific category or field. There are many studies that have attempted to identify retention factors. A brief overview of some of the retention factors that have been identified in previous research is provided in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4: Retention Factors Found in the Literature**

<b>Retention Factors</b>	<b>Cited by Scholars</b>
<b>Employee benefit management</b>	Yamamoto (2011)
<b>Job satisfaction</b>	Kotzé and Roodt (2005) Hausknecht, Rodda, and Howard (2009) Kwenin et al. (2013) Das and Baruah (2013)
<b>Organisational commitment</b>	Veldsman (2003) Kotzé and Roodt (2005) Hausknecht et al. (2009) Döckel et al. (2006) Van Dyk & Coetzee (2012) Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi and Shadman (2013)
<b>Reward systems</b>	Kwenin et al. (2013)
<b>Work-life balance practices</b>	Kinyili, Karanja and Namusonge (2015) Demarco (2007)
<b>Management style</b>	Meyer (2005)
<b>Compensation</b>	Ramlall (2003)
<b>Location</b>	Ramlall (2003)
<b>Reward and recognition</b>	Das and Baruah (2013)
<b>Opportunity for growth</b>	Kotzé and Roodt (2005) Das and Baruah (2013)

Of specific reference to the context of the current study, however, is the work-life balance interface. It has garnered much interest in recent years, especially with the developments in technology and the fast pace of the new world of work. According to Bianchi and Milkie (2010), research in this field has expanded in scope and attention since the first decade of the twenty-first century. The importance of cultivating a harmonic atmosphere between work and life for women in particular was explored in detail in Chapter 2. Therefore only a brief look at some of the studies that have investigated initiatives taken to increase the balance between work and life is provided.

One such study examined the relationship between work-life conflict and employee turnover and was conducted by Maxwell (2005), who found that managers must play an instrumental role in the execution of work-life balance policies. He states that these policies, which range between improved training, support in terms of work tasks, work breaks and Flexible Work Arrangements, have the potential not only to address the problem of work-life conflict but, more significantly, can help improve employee retention (Maxwell, 2005). In another study, Breugh and Frye (2008) found that, when the supervisor is thought to be family-supportive, employees are more likely to make use of family-friendly practices such as flexible hours and family leave. Doherty (2004) also questioned the influence of work-life conflict on turnover rates, but with a specific focus on women. She suggests that, to achieve lower turnover, a distinct set of rights be provided for all employees, focusing not only on women but also taking into account the needs of men so that a greater work-life balance can be achieved for all employees – male and female (Doherty, 2004).

Looked at holistically, it seems that employees will be less likely to leave their organisations if their unique needs are considered. In this regard, Thompson and Prottas (2006) observed that, when employees are provided with support on the social front, it incites lower levels of turnover intentions and reduces stress. After considering a lengthy review of the literature, Deery and Jago (2015) established that work-life balance emerges as a key concept in the retention and management of employees. This finding is consistent with the information presented in Table 4.3, which clearly shows that work-life balance has appeared as a retention factor in various studies.

The research conducted on the retention of employees is extensive and the findings are substantial. The researcher acknowledges that this literature review provides a simplified view of this widespread and multifaceted topic.

## **4.6 BEST PRACTICES**

Over the years, organisations have tried many strategies to help them retain their best employees. This emerged in response to a decline in employee loyalty, the shortage of skilled employees and the high rate of employee turnover (Craig, 2015). Organisations have been forced to take a critical look at their talent management and retention strategies to meet the

needs of the employees of the new world of work. Some strategies have thrived, while others have failed dismally. In this section, the successful strategies will be presented and examined.

One of the ways in which organisations try to address the issue of retaining employees is to provide an assortment of “healthy workplace practices” (Rathi & Lee, 2015). As the name implies, these practices are aimed at providing systems that would benefit the employee in a positive manner. Such practices include providing a work-life balance, employee involvement in the decision-making process, satisfactory and market-related remuneration, development opportunities and the implementation of health and safety procedures (Grawitch, Gottschalk & Munz, 2006; Grawitch, Trares & Kohler, 2007; J. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002).

In line with the notion that committed and satisfied employees remain with the organisation, Butler and Waldoorp (2011) explain that, when talented individuals leave their organisations, it does not mean that they do not enjoy their work; instead, there are other factors that must be taken into consideration. They clearly support the view that senior managers are at fault, since they do not realise the value of work satisfaction or the psychology behind it (Butler & Waldoorp, 2011). Basically, what they are saying is that, since there are a variety of options available to talented individuals, they will look for the job that provides the best fit for them, not only in terms of the actual work but also in terms of benefits, working hours, etc. This makes complete sense, especially in terms of the workforce of the twenty-first century, where jobs are changed fairly frequently. According to Butler and Waldoorp (2011), a person will only remain in a job if it matches their deeply embedded life interests, which vary from person to person. They have proposed that jobs should be sculpted in such a way that people are matched to the jobs that would satisfy their interests (person-job fit). This is a fascinating idea, but the practical application of it may be questionable.

This person-job fit view is supported by Munsamy and Bosch Venter (2009), who investigated the retention of management staff. In their study they found that the factor, *job aligned with personal meaning or passion*, was highly valued by employees. These findings show that jobs must be linked to an individual's interests and passions in order to keep employees committed, engaged and effectively retained.

In a white paper published by the organisation Oracle (2012), the following six best practices in terms of talent-retention strategies were suggested:

1. Recruit the right people in the first place: This is an age-old problem that needs to be addressed. If the best person for the job is appointed, that person will be a top performer and in turn will want to remain with the organisation.
2. Improve line management capability: Once an employee is hired, the manager takes over responsibility to effectively manage the employee. This includes providing guidance and direction to the employee. Incompetent managers could cause an employee to feel dissatisfied.
3. Constant feedback on clear goals: The importance of feedback cannot be overemphasised. Employees need to receive a response to their performance to determine whether they are on the right track. Understanding how one's job and activities contribute to the overall success of the organisation increases the commitment, engagement and retention rates of talented employees.
4. Empower employee career management: The need for career planning usually arises when an employee is unhappy or dissatisfied with his/her job. If such an employee receives no form of direction or help with regard to career options and development within the organisation, that employee will most likely look for opportunities elsewhere. Therefore it is of the utmost importance that career management is given priority and is attended to before it is too late.
5. Proactively drive talent mobility: Talented employees should be able to move laterally (transfer) and horizontally (promotion) within the organisation. This could form part of career management and succession planning. By filling positions through internal posting, organisations can improve satisfaction and retention while also reducing costs.
6. Continuously measure and improve: Management must remain abreast of the changes in the retention rates and levels within their organisations. If retention rates are dropping, this indicates that the current retention strategies and practices are not working. Constant monitoring helps organisations to be proactive in retaining employees.

It is clear that these strategies have a very practical, hands-on focus. It is imperative that organisations take a keen interest in and proactive approach to the retention of employees in order to reduce turnover and increase satisfaction.

In terms of practices that have actually succeeded, the best way to look at the situation is to find a benchmark. This is usually achieved by comparing against the best in the field. From this point of view, Google was named the best company to work for by Fortune (2016). A brief overview of the company's retention practices is provided. Google's triumph in the business world could be attributed mainly to its commitment to nurturing its employees. Matsangou (2015) explores the secrets to Google's success in an article in the *European CEO* online magazine. She found that Google has assumed a revolutionary take on human resource management. The company has taken every step possible to ensure a working environment and working life in general of the very best standard. Google has provided its employees with abundant and previously inconceivable benefits. Amongst others, the company provides a fun environment (games rooms, volleyball courts, climbing walls), shows an interest in the health of its employees (doctors on call, nap pods, comprehensive health plans) and provides sustenance (free meals with a variety of healthy options) (Matsangou, 2015). Over and above all of these benefits, Google also provides a competitive, above-average compensation package and coaching/mentoring programmes to develop future leaders (Lombardo, 2015). However, according to Laszlo Bock, the head of Google's People Operations (similar to an HR department), people do not stay with Google because of the money. Instead, he says that they stay for two reasons: 1) the quality of the people, and 2) a feeling that the work done is meaningful (Goudreau, 2015).

It must be noted that, although different strategies work well for different companies, it is always worthwhile to take a look at what other companies are offering. Learning from each other is a key step in getting to the top. One company's failure could be the learning curve for another company's victory in terms of employee retention and competitive advantage.

#### **4.7 SUMMARY**

A view of the multidimensional concept of retention has been provided. The chapter started with an introduction that showed the link between the previous chapters and retention, and also reiterated the perspectives used in the present study. The discussion then focused on the reason why retention is such a current topic that deserves attention. This account entailed the existing 'war for talent' that encompasses the working world. An explanation of retention was offered, along with a brief analysis of the definitions provided in the literature. The discussion inevitably led to the high rates of employee turnover and the reasons behind this. Thereafter, an

indication of some of the main retention factors found in the literature was presented. This included an examination of four models related to employee retention. This section was summarised in a table that provided the relevance of each of the models to the current study. The penultimate section supplied a further description of the retention factors that were explored in the current study and that fall into the categories of leadership style, leadership opportunities and general retention factors. The chapter concluded with a look at best practices and suggestions to improve retention in organisations. This chapter aimed to provide the reader with a holistic view of the current study, in which retention is a prominent theme.

## CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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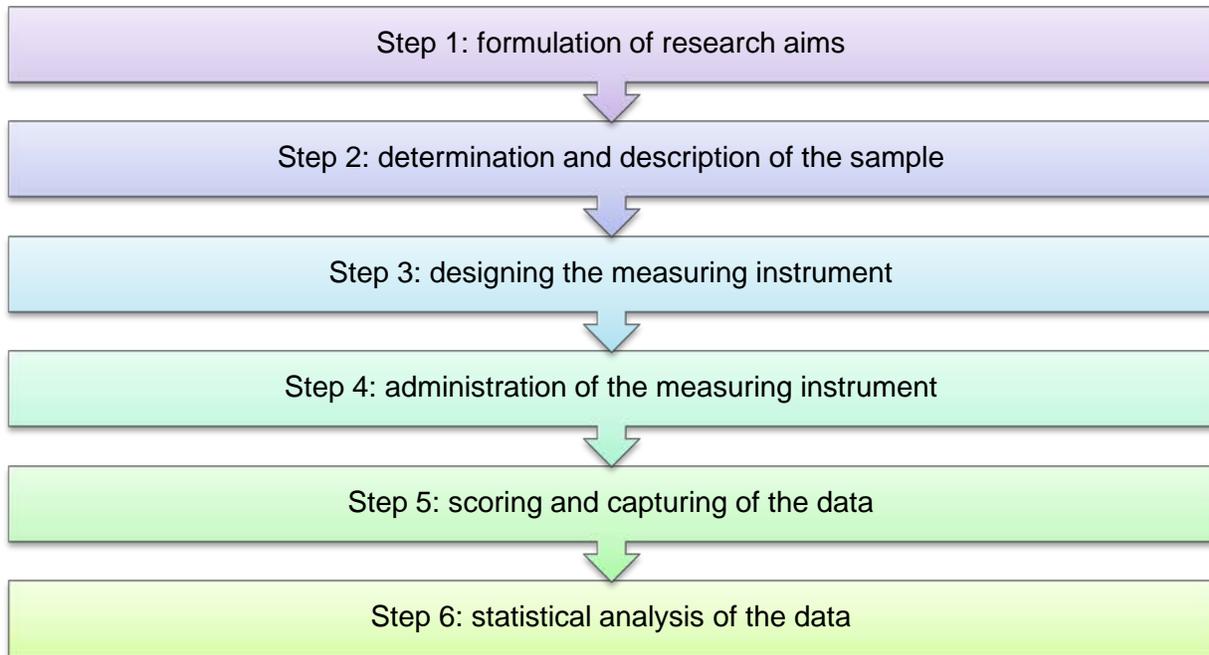
### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an outline of the empirical investigation carried out in this study. The purpose of this chapter is specifically to describe the different statistical processes used to investigate the empirical research aims of the study. The primary research aim was to determine the factors that would affect the retention of women from a leadership perspective. This aim comprised the centre of this study, from which all the other aims were derived.

The chapter begins with an explanation of the sampling strategy, followed by a discussion of the measuring instrument, with a specific focus on the design and development of the questionnaire. Thereafter, the data collection methods are described. The research questions of the study are stated, along with the statistical processing approaches that were used. Finally, the ethical considerations of the research methodology are discussed and a brief summary of the chapter is given.

The main purpose of research is to create knowledge and express theories through empirical evidence that can be used to inform a specific subject field. This chapter provides the foundation upon which this research study was based.

The empirical research phase explained in this chapter consisted of numerous steps, as outlined in Figure 5.1.



**Figure 5.1: Steps in the Research Process**

## **5.2 STEP 1: FORMULATION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The specific aims of the empirical study are listed below:

**Research aim 1:** To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

**Research aim 2:** To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

**Research aim 3:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.

**Research aim 4:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.

**Research aim 5:** To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

**Research aim 6:** To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management regarding retention strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of this research.

### **5.3 STEP 2: DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE**

#### **5.3.1 Sampling Strategy Used**

The empirical study took place amongst female employees at a South African higher education institution. A population refers to the total unit or group of individuals under investigation for research purposes, and the sample is extracted from this group (Salkind, 2012). At the time of data collection, the total population constituted approximately  $N = 2\,732$ , which was the total number of permanent female employees working at the university in November and December 2015. The population comprised women only and included women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

Sampling is necessary because it simply is not possible to study every unit of the total population individually (Affleck, 2010). Due to the practical implications implied by the relatively large population size, a sampling process had to be conducted for the purpose of this study. The process of sampling allows one to make an estimation of the entire population based on a section of the population (Salkind, 2012; Thompson, 2012). There are three main categories of sampling – non-probability, probability and mixed sampling designs (Kumar, 2014). If the number of elements is indefinite or cannot be identified individually, then a non-probability sampling design should be used (Kumar, 2014). Therefore, non-probability sampling was not used for this study.

Amedeo, Golledge and Stimson (2009) explain that, in probability sampling, every unit of the target population has an equal and specified possibility of being selected in the sample. This type of sampling also accommodates sampling error (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). Affleck (2010) suggests that probability sampling has three conditions – 1) elements are randomly selected, 2) each element has a positive chance of selection and 3) it is easy to determine the rate at which an element is included in the sample. When the goal of the research is to use statistics to make deductions about the population parameters and conclusions based on the sample, then probability sampling must be used (Amedeo et al., 2009). The current study

used probability sampling, where the total population of women employees at the higher education institution had an equal chance to be selected through random selection.

A number of different techniques or designs are used in probability sampling, such as simple random sampling, cluster sampling or stratified sampling (Kumar, 2014). The type of probability sampling used for this study was simple random sampling. Although simple random sampling is identified as a very basic type of probability sampling, it is also the most commonly used method in which each participant has an equal and independent chance of being selected, hence it was determined as suitable for the current study (Affleck, 2010; Kumar, 2014; Salkind, 2012).

Kumar (2014) identified three simple steps to follow for the process of simple random sampling to take place:

- Use a number to classify each unit in the population
- Choose a sample size ( $n$ )
- Select  $n$  - using a fishbowl draw method, a table or computer program

A simple random sample of  $n = 2\,000$  permanent female employees was drawn using a computer program. A total of 311 questionnaires were completed, resulting in a response rate of 15.6%. Therefore the sample represents 11.4% of the total population. This number was deemed fair for data analysis and interpretation in order to make a valuable contribution to the subject of retention and the overall field of human resource management.

### **5.3.2 Representation of the Sample**

Information on the population was obtained from the Directorate Information and Analysis (DIA) at the higher education institution after ethical clearance was obtained for the research. The statistics are based on females only, since this was the unit of analysis for this study. The representability of the sample when compared to the total population was analysed in terms of two key elements – age and race. The frequency distributions of the sample were examined for each of these elements.

### 5.3.2.1 Age

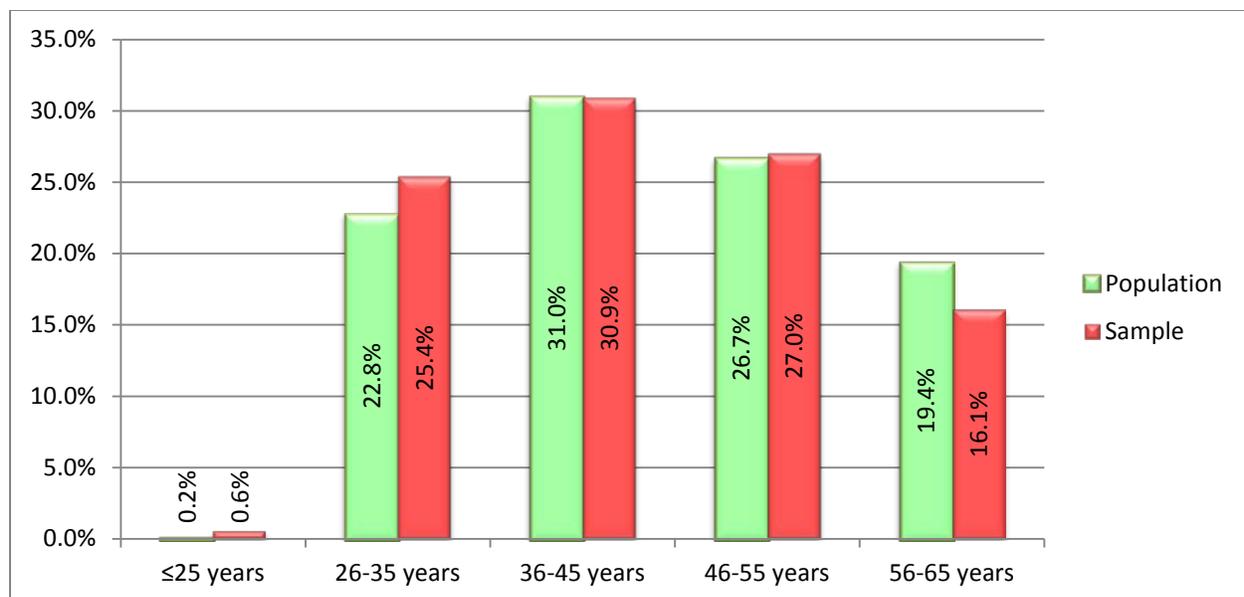
The age distributions of the sample and of the population are shown in Table 5.1, Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2.

**Table 5.1: Age Distribution of Sample**

Valid	AGE				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	< 25	2	0.6	0.6	0.6
	26-35	79	25.4	25.4	26.0
	36-45	96	30.9	30.9	56.9
	46-55	84	27.0	27.0	83.9
	56-65	50	16.1	16.1	100.0
	Total	311	100	100	

**Table 5.2: Age Distribution of Population**

Group Age	Number of Female Employees	Percent
< 25	4	0.2
26-35	624	22.8
36-45	847	31.0
46-55	728	26.6
56-65	529	19.4
Total	2 732	100.0



**Figure 5.2: Age Distributions**

Figure 5.2 shows that the sample is fairly representative of the total population. The difference between the values does not exceed 0.4% in any of the groupings, which is reasonable, and a slight difference was expected. Figure 5.2 also provides an overall picture of the female workforce at the university in terms of age distribution. The largest number of female employees was from the age group 36 to 45 years (31%), and this is not surprising, since women are active participants in the workforce at these ages. As the groups progress in age, the number of female employees in both the sample and the population also dropped. This could be as a result of women leaving the workforce to pursue other life interests. It is also intriguing to note how negligible the percentage of female employees below the age of 25 was. This could be attributed to this university being an institution of higher learning, where a professional workforce is of the utmost importance and young females may not yet have obtained the necessary qualifications to be appointed as permanent employees.

#### 5.3.2.2 Race

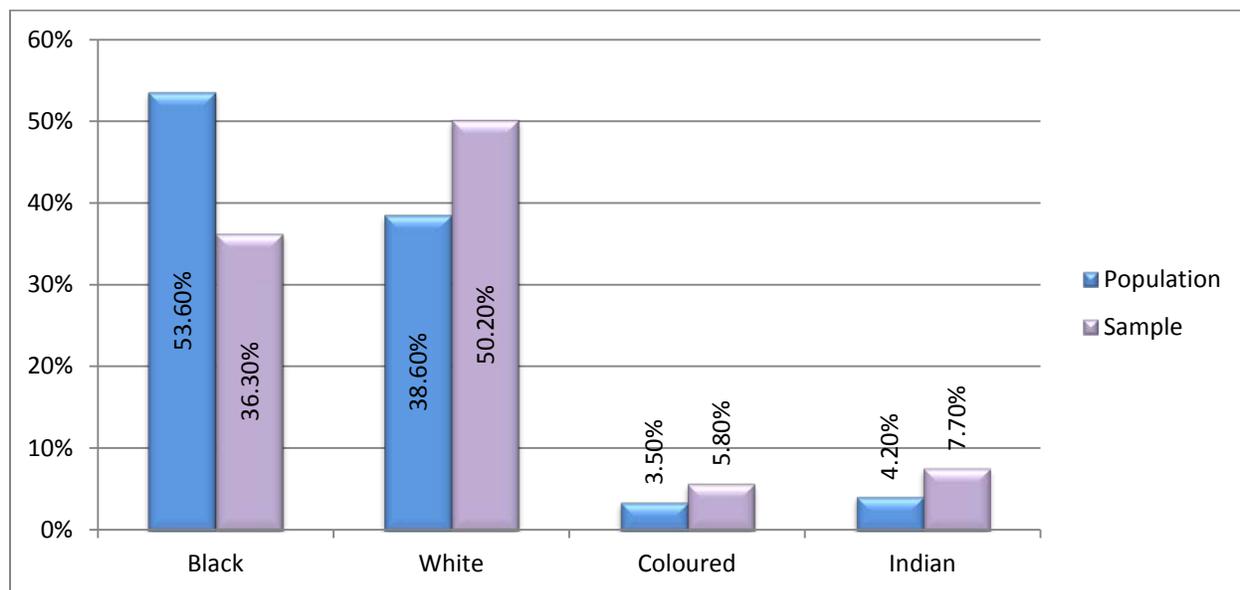
The race distributions of the sample and of the population are shown in Table 5.3, Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3.

**Table 5.3: Race Distribution of Sample**

RACE					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Black	113	36.3	36.3	36.3
	White	156	50.2	50.2	86.5
	Coloured	18	5.8	5.8	92.3
	Indian	23	7.4	7.4	99.7
	Asian	1	0.3	0.3	100.0
	Total	311	100	100	

**Table 5.4: Race Distribution of Population**

Race	Number of Female Employees	Percent
African	1 465	53.6
Coloured	97	3.5
Indian	114	4.2
White	1 056	38.7
Total	2 732	100



**Figure 5.3: Race Distributions**

Figure 5.3 clearly shows that the two largest race groups were black and white women respectively. Unfortunately, in terms of race the sample is slightly biased, as there were more white respondents (50.2%) in comparison to black respondents (36.3%) in the sample. Yet the population shows that the number of black females at the institution exceeds the number of white females by a relatively significant ratio of 15%. This could be attributed to transformation initiatives at the institution. The researcher acknowledges this as a limitation of the study.

In the questionnaire, Indian and Asian were regarded as separate categories, although they were combined at a later stage. The reason for doing this was because the number of Asians in the sample amounted to only one person, and the categories provided by the institution on race groups do not contain Asian as a separate entity.

The number of coloured and Asian women in the sample was not that high, but was considered as reasonable when compared to the population distribution.

### 5.3.3 Biographical Information of Respondents

The biographical information requested in the questionnaire has been discussed from question 3 onwards, since questions 1 and 2 – regarding race and age respectively – were discussed in

the previous section when reporting on the representation of the sample. A frequency analysis of the biographic data in Section A of the questionnaire revealed the following:

### 5.3.3.1 Marital status

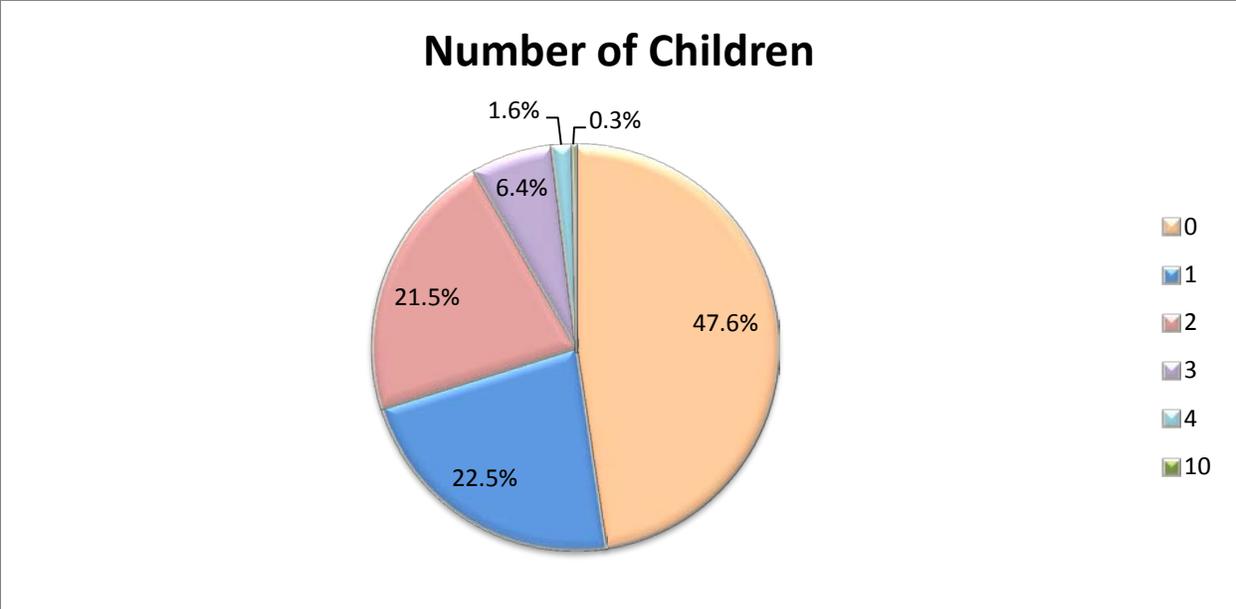
This question was asked to determine the profiles of different women and their unique needs. For instance, it could be said that a married mother of two young children has significantly different needs than an older woman who is single and financially stable. The question provided two alternatives – 1) single (including divorced, widowed) and 2) married (including living together). This question provided an underlying view of the support system and responsibilities of the respondents. The results showed that 37.3% of the respondents were single, while a larger portion (62.7%) were married.

### 5.3.3.2 Number of children below the age of 18

This question was asked to draw attention to the number of women with childcare responsibilities. Up to the age of 18, when children are legally considered adults, there exists a certain degree of obligation and concern on the part of the parent. For this reason, the researcher wanted to ascertain the actual number of women who had children and the number of children under each woman’s care. The results are indicated in Table 5.5 and Figure 5.4.

**Table 5.5: Number of Children (< 18)**

NUMBER OF CHILDREN BELOW 18					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	0	148	47.6	47.6	47.6
	1	70	22.5	22.5	70.1
	2	67	21.5	21.5	91.6
	3	20	6.4	6.4	98.1
	4	5	1.6	1.6	99.7
	10	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	311	100	100	



**Figure 5.4: Number of Children (< 18)**

The number of female employees who did not have children below the age of 18 was unexpectedly high – 47.6%, which is just less than half of the sample. The number of employees with one or two children was practical in terms of the general lifestyle choices of the twenty-first century. The number of women who had more than two children was at a low cumulative percentage of 8.3%. An obscure result shows that one respondent indicated having 10 children below the age of 18; although this is not impossible, it is an uncertain finding.

These findings show that more than half of the sample had childcare responsibilities (52.4%), with the number of children varying between one and four (with the exception of the one respondent with 10 children).

*5.3.3.3 Breadwinner*

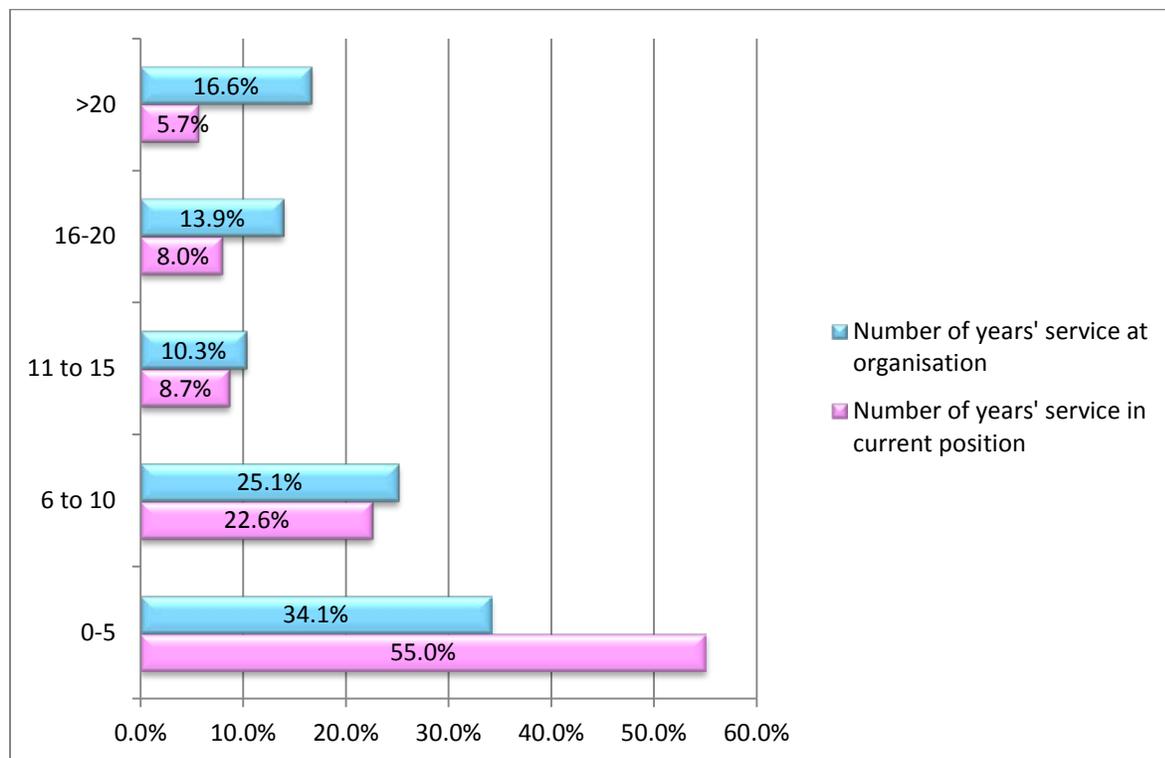
The respondents were asked to specify their status as the breadwinner (higher earner and main contributor to the household income). This question adds another dimension to the profile of the women in the sample. By recognising that some women are breadwinners, it provides a depiction of their duties and roles as head of the household. A staggering 65.9% of the respondents indicated that they were the breadwinners. This finding portrays the need for these women to keep their jobs, as their earnings were the main source of income in the household.

#### 5.3.3.4 Current position

In the biographical section of the questionnaire, the current position (job title) of employees was asked as an open question. However, after consideration it was found that the extent and variety of answers did not allow for meaningful grouping to take place. Therefore no further analysis was done on this question.

#### 5.3.3.5 Number of years' service in current position and at current organisation

This study focused on retaining employees, and for this reason the number of years that an employee had worked at the organisation and in a specific position was of relevance. The results are indicated in Figure 5.5.



**Figure 5.5: Years of Service**

Figure 5.5 indicates that the majority of the respondents had been in their current positions (55%) and at the same organisation (34.1%) for five years or less. This finding is a compelling

argument for the need for this research, since the respondents were relatively new to the organisation, which makes retention strategies a critical factor.

The number of female employees who had been working at the higher education institution for six to 10 years was the second largest, at 25.1%. A substantial number, 24.2%, had been at the institution for 10 to 20 years. The number of women who had chosen to stay at the institution for over 20 years was a mere 16.6%.

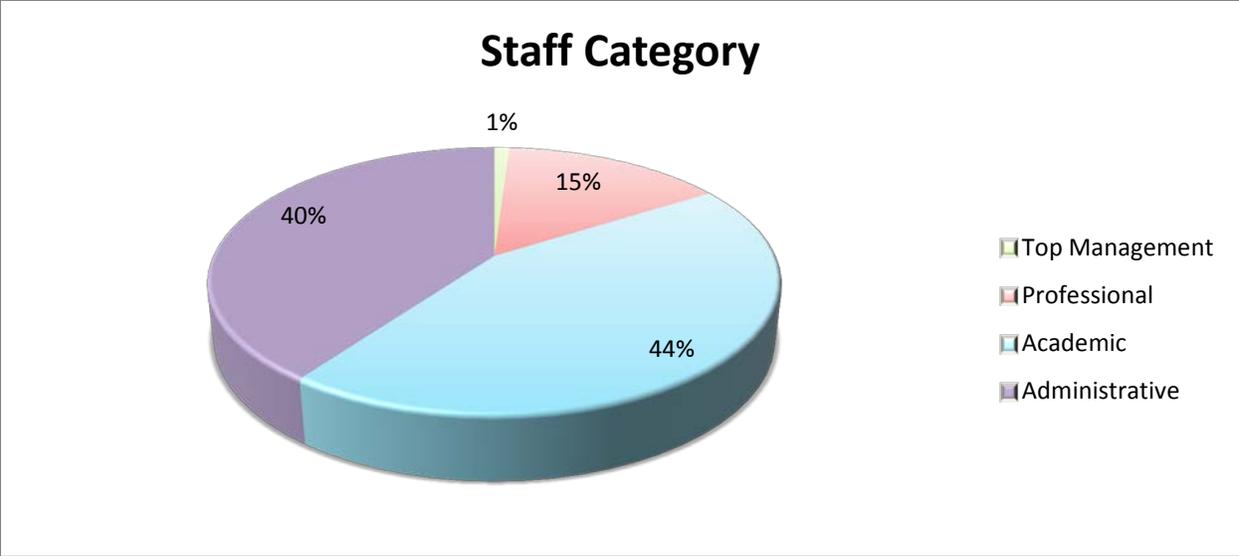
Figure 5.5 also indicates that 22.6% of the respondents had been in their current position for six to 10 years, 16.7% for 10 to 20 years, and 5.7% for more than 20 years.

#### 5.3.3.6 Staff category

The respondents were asked to provide their staff category by choosing from top management (P4 or higher), professional/technical, academic or administrative. Top management was included as a staff category due to the high level of influence that top management has on policies, procedures and the overall running of the university. A distinction was made for the category of professional, since many professional workers with the relevant qualifications do not classify themselves as fulfilling administrative roles. However, the main focus was on the differences between academic and administrative employees, since their jobs differed so drastically. The results are shown in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6.

**Table 5.6: Staff Category**

STAFF CATEGORY					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Top Management (< P4)	3	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Professional/Technical	48	15.4	15.4	16.4
	Academic	137	44.1	44.1	60.5
	Administrative	123	39.5	39.5	100.0
	Total	311	100	100	



**Figure 5.6: Staff Category**

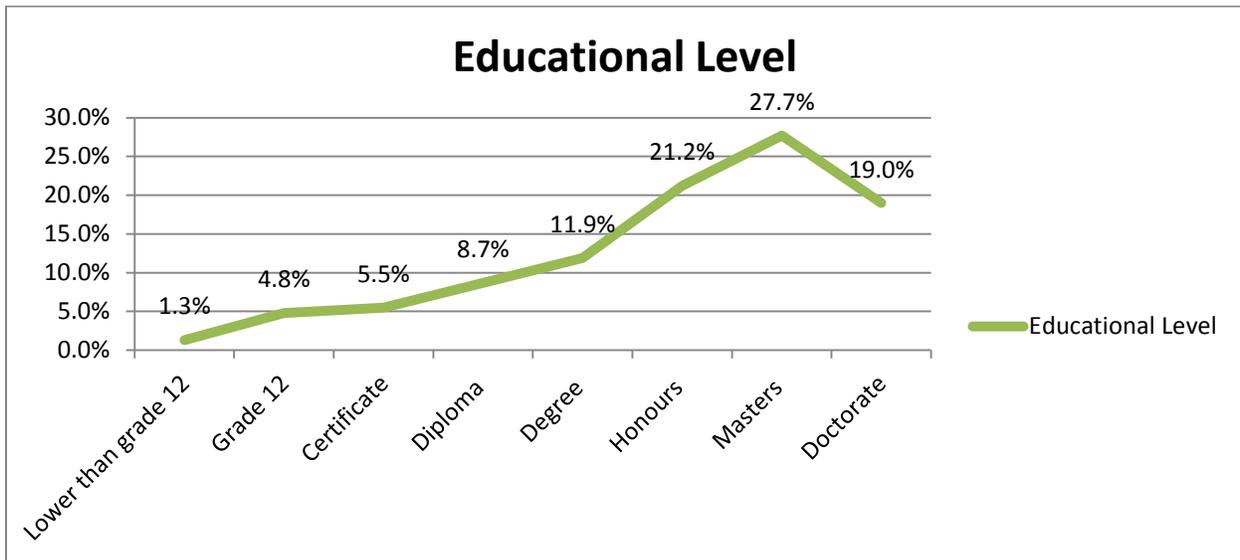
Figure 5.6 shows that the majority of respondents fell into two main staff categories, namely academic (44%) and administrative (40%). Only 1% of the respondents were from top management, and 15% were professionals.

*5.3.3.7 Highest educational level*

The educational level was an important factor required in this study. In general, higher qualified individuals would have greater alternative employment prospects, hence the need to improve retention strategies that fulfil the needs of talented staff is once again highlighted. The results are shown in Table 5.7 and Figure 5.7.

**Table 5.7: Highest Educational Level**

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVELS					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Lower than grade 12	4	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Grade 12	15	4.8	4.8	6.1
	Certificate	17	5.5	5.5	11.6
	Diploma	27	8.7	8.7	20.3
	Degree	37	11.9	11.9	32.2
	Honours	66	21.2	21.2	53.4
	Masters	86	27.7	27.7	81.0
	Doctorate	59	19.0	19.0	100.0
	Total	311	100.0	100.0	



**Figure 5.7: Highest Educational Level**

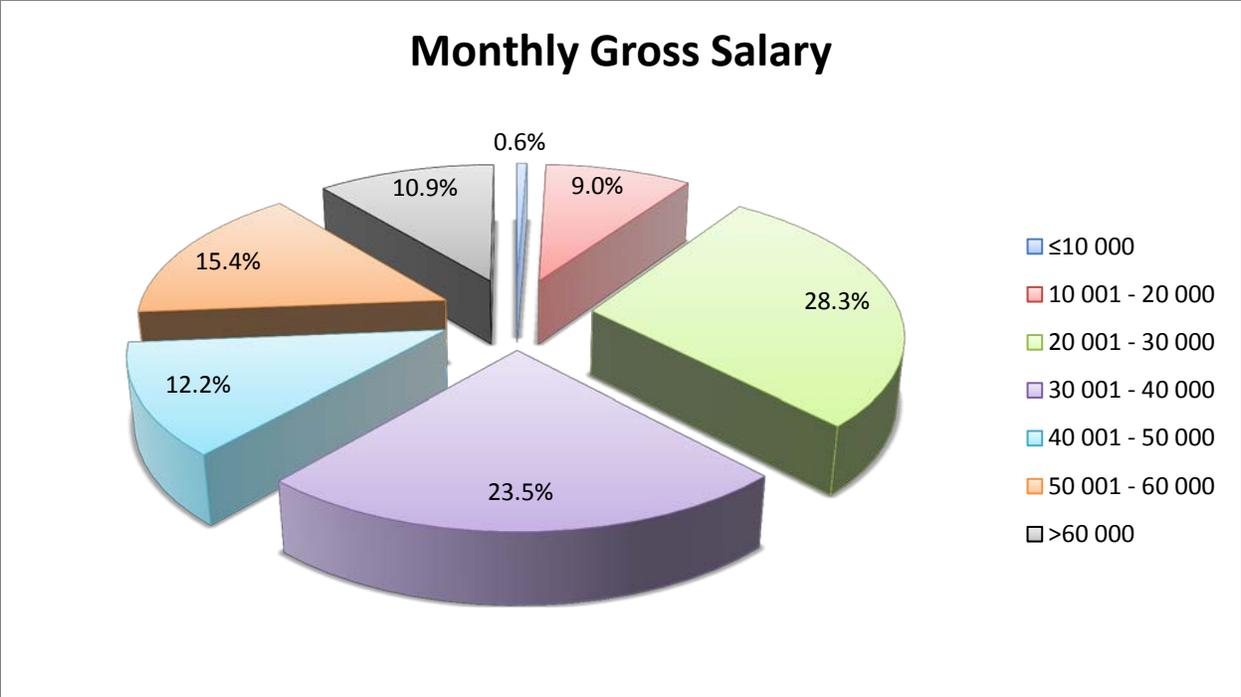
The respondents were highly qualified, as shown in Figure 5.7. Of the respondents, 79.8% held a degree or a higher qualification, while only 1.3% of the respondents had not completed matric. This is not surprising considering the number of academic and professional employees who participated in this study.

#### 5.3.3.8 Monthly gross salary

The different categories of salaries are shown in Table 5.8 and Figure 5.8.

**Table 5.8: Monthly Gross Salary**

MONTHLY GROSS SALARY					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	10 000 or less	2	.6	.6	.6
	10 001 – 20 000	28	9.0	9.0	9.6
	20 001 - 30 000	88	28.3	28.3	37.9
	30 001 - 40 000	73	23.5	23.5	61.4
	40 001 - 50 000	38	12.2	12.2	73.6
	50 001 - 60 000	48	15.4	15.4	89.1
	More than 60 000	34	10.9	10.9	100.0
		311	100	100	



**Figure 5.8: Monthly Gross Salary**

According to Table 5.8, the largest number of respondents (28.3%) earned a gross monthly salary of between R20 001 and R30 000. The second largest earning category was from R30 001 to R40 000, which accounted for 23.5% of the respondents. Only 9.6% of the respondents earned less than R20 000. A substantial number of the respondents (27.6%) earned between R40 001 and R60 000. Finally, 10.9% of the respondents earned more than R60 000.

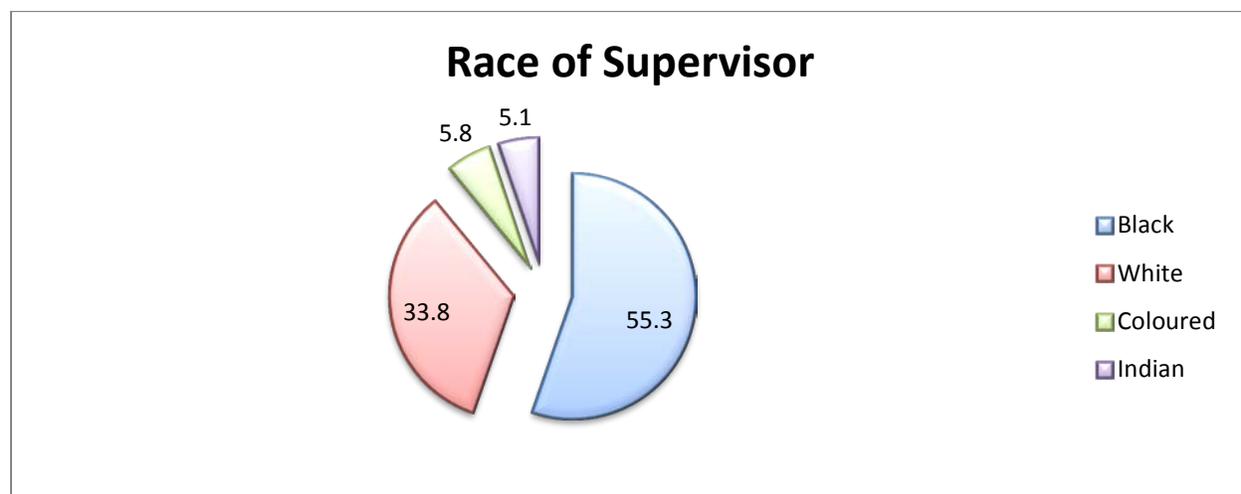
*5.3.3.9 Race of supervisor*

This question and the two that follow were related to the employee’s supervisor. The reason that these questions were included was because one of the main factors of this study involved the leadership of the supervisor. A brief profile of the different supervisors at the higher education institution would be valuable to the study.

The allocation within the different race groups of the respondents’ supervisors is shown in Table 5.9 and Figure 5.9.

**Table 5.9: Race of Supervisor**

RACE OF SUPERVISOR					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Black	172	55.3	55.3	55.3
	White	105	33.8	33.8	89.1
	Coloured	18	5.8	5.8	94.9
	Indian	16	5.1	5.1	100.0
		311	100	100	



**Figure 5.9: Race of Supervisor**

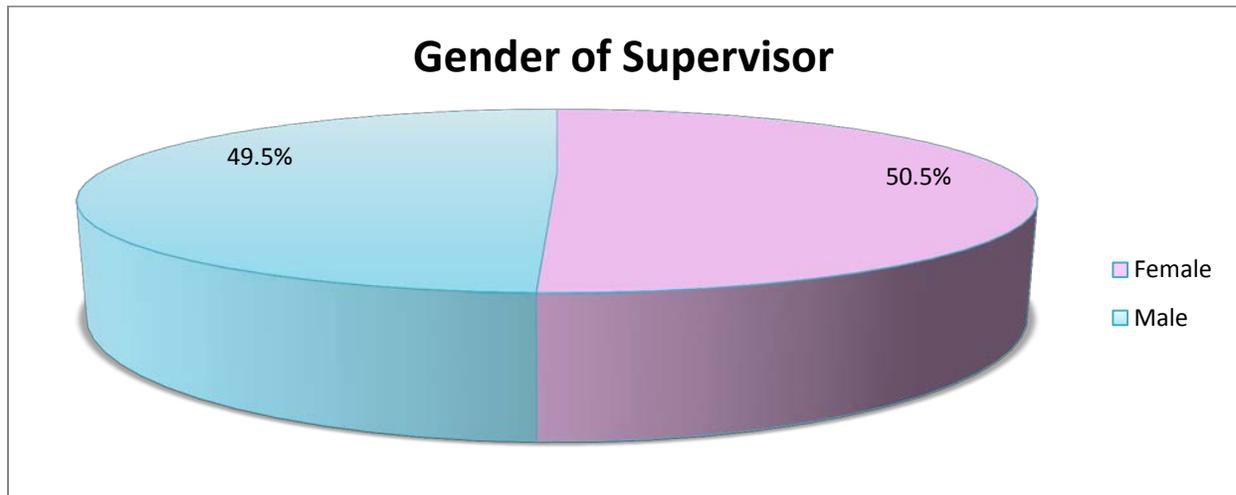
According to Table 5.9, the supervisors of the respondents, according to race, were as follows: 55.3% had black supervisors, 33.8% had white supervisors, 5.8% had coloured supervisors and 5.1% had Indian supervisors. Asian was provided as an option in the questionnaire, although no respondents chose this option.

#### 5.3.3.10 Gender of supervisor

The division between the genders of the respondents' supervisors is shown in Table 5.10 and Figure 5.10.

**Table 5.10: Gender of Supervisor**

GENDER OF SUPERVISOR					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Female	157	50.5	50.5	50.5
	Male	154	49.5	49.5	100.0
		311	100	100	



**Figure 5.10: Gender of Supervisor**

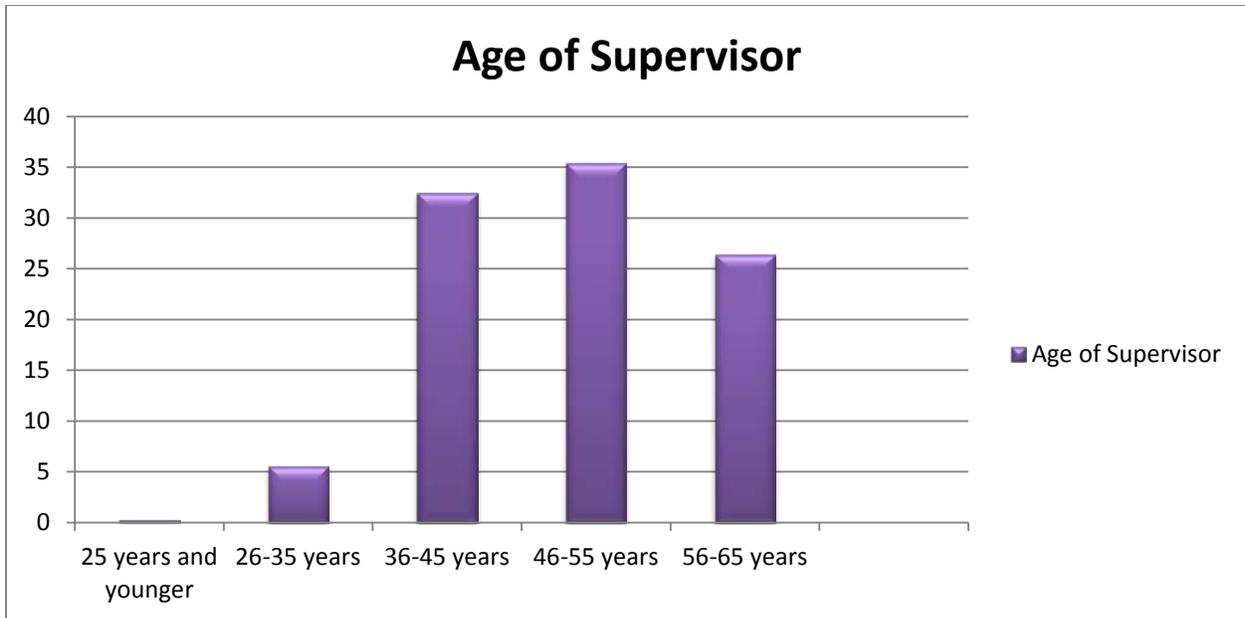
The information shows clearly that the respondents' supervisors were evenly distributed between the two genders. The number of female supervisors only exceeded the number of male supervisors by 1%.

#### 5.3.3.11 Age of supervisor

The age of the respondents' supervisors according to the age categories identified in the questionnaire are indicated in Table 5.11 and Figure 5.11.

**Table 5.11: Age of Supervisor**

AGE OF SUPERVISOR					
Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	25 years and younger	1	.3	.3	.3
	26-35 years	17	5.5	5.5	5.8
	36-45 years	101	32.5	32.5	38.3
	46-55 years	110	35.4	35.4	73.6
	56-65 years	82	26.4	26.4	100.0
		311	100	100	



**Figure 5.11: Age of Supervisor**

As Table 5.11 shows, there were only a few respondents with supervisors below the age of 35 (5.8%). This indicates that years of experience play a critical role in the appointment of supervisors at this institution. On the other hand, most of the respondents had supervisors who were between the ages of 46 and 55 (35.4%), with the second largest age category between 36 and 45 years of age (32.5%). It is interesting to note that only 26.4% of the respondents had supervisors between the ages of 56 and 65 years. This could be due to older workers stepping down from leadership roles as they near retirement or, in the case of academic employees, to focus on research.

### 5.3.4 Interpretation of Biographical Details of Sample

The information provided in Sections 5.2 and 5.3 of this chapter provide an indication of the biographical details of the sample of respondents. This information should be taken into account when interpreting the research data. The sample was analysed to provide a profile of the respondents. A brief outline of the respondents' supervisors is also included.

The age and race of the sample were identified as key elements to be analysed to determine the representability of the population. The age of the respondents was considered fairly representative of the population, since the differences between the values of the sample and the

population were minimal. However, in terms of race, the sample was found to be slightly biased. This is due to the higher number of white respondents (50.2%) in the sample and the lower number of black respondents (36.3%). In the general population, these figures are almost reversed, where white females make up only 38.6% of the population and black females comprise the majority, at 53.6%. The number of coloured and indian respondents is fairly representative of the population. The researcher acknowledges that the findings of this study may be more applicable to the white race group.

The biographical details were then examined to provide a summary of the respondents in this study. The majority of the women in the sample – 30.9% – were between the ages of 36 and 45 and were from the white race group, as mentioned previously. A large number of respondents, namely 62.7%, indicated that they were married or living with their life partner, with 52.4% of the respondents having one child or more under the age of 18. A total of 65.9% of the sample revealed that they were the breadwinners of the household. This shows that the sample was made up of mature women in stable relationships, who had childcare responsibilities and fulfilled the role of the main provider for their respective families.

The majority of the respondents (34.1%) had been at the organisation for five years or less. Only 16.6% of the respondents had been working at the university for more than 20 years, and 24.2% had been at the university for more than 10 years. This indicates that the majority of the respondents were still relatively new to the organisation, accentuating the need for this research, which focuses on retaining employees.

In terms of current positions, 5.7% of the respondents had held their current position for more than 20 years, 16.7% for 11 to 20 years, 22.6% for six to 10 years, and 55% for five years or less. This shows that movement within the organisation, whether it is lateral or vertical, is limited. This finding further highlights the need to identify advancement opportunities within the institution.

Academics made up the greater part of the sample, at 44%, with administrative employees following closely at 40%. This finding is accentuated by the fact that 27.7% of the respondents held a Master's degree and 19% held a doctoral degree as their highest level of education. The bulk of the sample earned more than R20 000 a month, with a mere 9.6% earning less.

The focus then shifted to the biographical profile of the respondents' supervisors. In summary, the supervisors were predominantly black (55.3%), female (50.5%) and between the ages of 46 and 55 years of age (35.4%).

## **5.4 STEP 3: DESIGNING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

### **5.4.1 Overall Research Design**

The research design guides the decision on the type of measuring instrument to be used. A quantitative research design was chosen for this study. The empirical study used a cross-sectional, descriptive and exploratory research design in order to determine the retention and leadership factors, as well as to study the relationships between them. Cross-sectional studies provide a general viewpoint on the research topic at the time when the study is conducted by surveying a selection of respondents with regard to a list of variables (Kumar, 2014; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). Descriptive studies do not aim to draw conclusions on causality, but instead attempt to explore a specific situation at a specific point in time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Welman et al., 2005). Exploratory research is conducted to investigate the research questions without providing binding or conclusive solutions to existing problems (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

### **5.4.2 Type of Measuring Instrument Chosen: Web-based Questionnaire**

The type of data required largely determines the most appropriate method to be used. In line with the quantitative approach, a survey research method was chosen. When investigating a potential relationship between two or more variables, a survey research method could be applied (Welman et al., 2005). The measuring instrument is used as a means to understanding data and relating data to a specific qualitative criterion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Welman et al., 2005). A self-administered electronic questionnaire was used as the measuring instrument for this study. An electronic questionnaire is also known as a web-based survey. A web-based survey refers to questionnaires that are accommodated on a website. The sample is sent an invitation to participate in the study via email with a link directing them to the webpage where the survey can be accessed and completed (Feinberg, Kinner & Taylor, 2013). Salkind (2012) explains that, among the advantages of using questionnaires is firstly the fact that they are self-administered and therefore much less time-consuming. Secondly, when using email to send

surveys, researchers can reach respondents from a broad geographical area. Web-based surveys, which are gaining popularity, are time and cost-efficient and, finally, respondents are more inclined to provide honest answers as their anonymity is practically secured (Salkind, 2012). However, he also warns that one of the major disadvantages of using such questionnaires is that the response rate is much lower than other methods, as people must make some effort to complete and return the questionnaire (Salkind, 2012). Questionnaires were used in this study due to their cost-effective nature and ease of administration in reaching a large sample.

### **5.4.3 Development and Design of the Questionnaire**

After a careful review of the literature on the topics of retention and leadership it was found that there was no suitable questionnaire that would address the aims of this study. Therefore an instrument was developed by the researcher. For the purpose of this research report it has been called the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire (LRQ). The instrument was used to measure retention and leadership constructs from a woman's point of view within the South African context; specifically to determine the factors that would assist in the retention of women in higher education. Furthermore, it was also used to determine how the different leadership styles displayed by managers would have an impact on the retention of female staff and how leadership opportunities provided to women would affect their willingness to remain with the organisation. The content of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire is based on the literature review found in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. In order to compile the questionnaire items, the researcher conducted an exhaustive study of the literature, which included research articles and subject-specific books on the topics of retention, leadership and women in the workplace.

#### *5.4.3.1 Scaling of the questions*

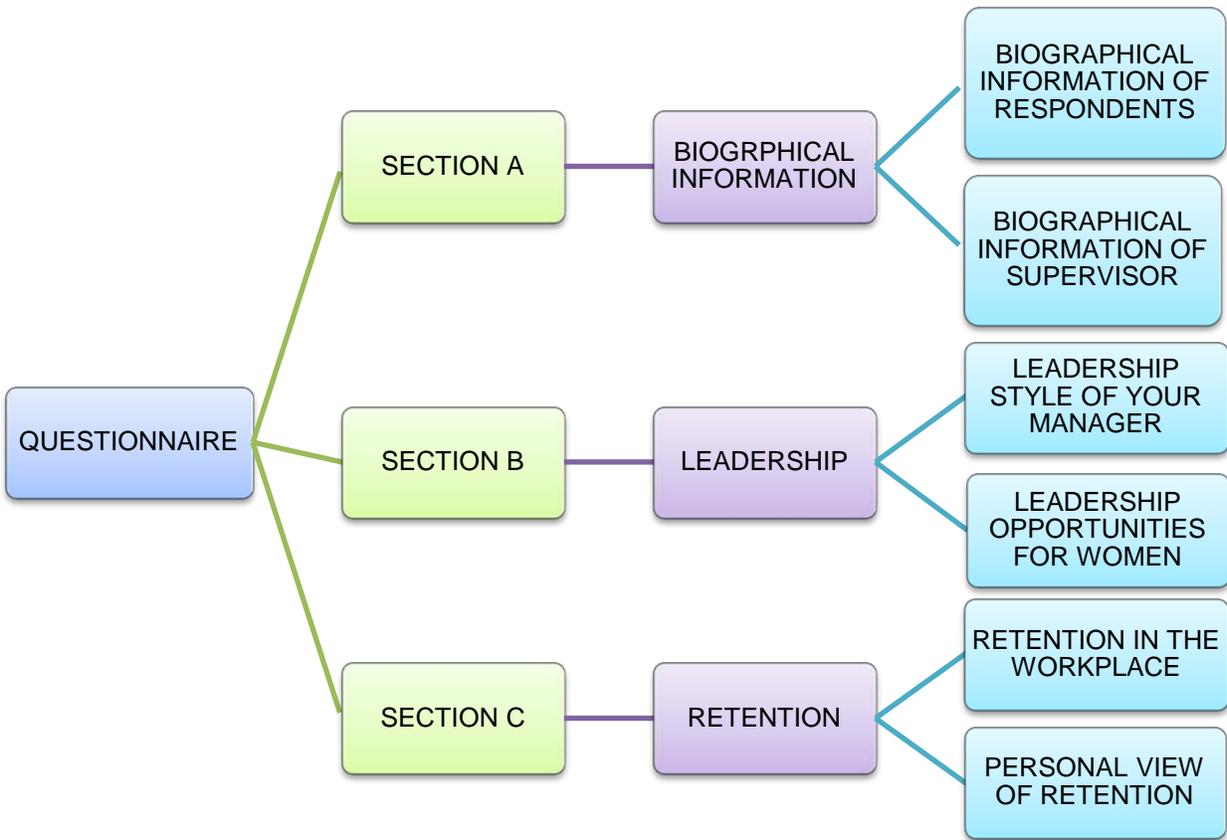
Once the researcher had a firm grasp of the content, the questionnaire was compiled based on a structured format. A structured questionnaire provides alternatives to each question, and the respondent simply needs to select and mark the applicable answer. However, before the actual items could be developed, the researcher first decided on the type of rating scale to be used. A number of different types of tests are utilised in research. One of the most common is known as 'attitude tests' or 'scales', which attempt to measure people's feelings regarding a person, event or object (Salkind, 2012). This differs from achievement tests, which generally are used in

society to assess an individual's competence in a specific subject. According to Salkind (2012), two methods are used to create two different types of scales – Likert and Thurstone. The method chosen for this study was the Likert scale (Likert, 1932) due to its extensive application and ease of development. For each statement provided, the respondents had to indicate the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with its content on a precise scale (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015; Welman et al., 2005). When developing a rating scale, a verbal label should be attached to each response option so that the meaning of the rating for the respondents is clear. In order to reduce the effect of central tendency, the researcher specifically chose to use a six-point Likert-type scale (even numbered), with verbal labels assigned to each score as shown below:

<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
1	2	3	4	5	6

#### *5.4.3.2 Layout of the questionnaire*

When creating the questionnaire items, the researcher consulted various guidelines to help prepare clear, well-written items (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Pallant, 2011). Items were prepared to specifically address the research aims of the study, as a poorly designed questionnaire could result in the research aims not being met. The Leadership/Retention Questionnaire was divided into three sections with different categories, as shown in Figure 5.12



**Figure 5.12: Layout of Questionnaire**

➤ **Biographical Details:**

The biographical details of the respondents included the following elements: race, age, marital status, number of children below the age of 18, breadwinner status, current position, number of years of service in current position and at the organisation, staff category, highest educational level and monthly gross salary. The biographical details requested in terms of the respondents' supervisors related to the race, gender and age of the supervisor.

➤ **Leadership:**

The section on leadership was separated according to the two different perspectives used in this study. The first leadership section (B1) included items that referred to the type of leadership style displayed by a supervisor or manager. This section was primarily informed by the various leadership theories and assorted leadership styles identified in Chapter 3 (leadership). The aim of this section was to determine the type of leadership that is displayed by supervisors at the higher education institution. This information would help in determining the type of behaviour

that a leader should display or the style that leaders should embrace so that women would want to stay with the organisation.

The second leadership section (B2) contained items that represented leadership opportunities for women at the higher education institution. The aim of this section was to gain some insight into women's perceptions of the presence of leadership opportunities available to them at their organisation. This section was informed by Chapter 2, which analysed the role of women in the new century and their need for advancement. This information would assist in determining how important leadership opportunities are in relation to retention, or if it would have any impact at all.

➤ Retention:

The section on retention was separated according to retention strategies provided by the organisation (C1) and the respondent's personal view of retention (C2). Classifying retention into two categories was done in order to ascertain whether the retention strategies employed by the university are perceived as effective, and also to determine the different retention factors that are important to individuals and that they would like to see implemented at the university. Section C1, which referred to retention in the workplace, asked the respondents to critically analyse their employer in terms of retention factors provided to them as women specifically. This section incorporated various components, such as support provided by the organisation, challenges faced by women at the institution and to what extent their institution caters for the unique needs of women. On the other hand, Section C2, which investigated the respondent's personal view of retention, incorporated elements of work-life balance, benefits and flexibility. Items from both categories of the retention section of the questionnaire were prepared using the knowledge gained in Chapter 4 (retention).

#### *5.4.3.3 Pretesting the questionnaire*

One of the best ways to test a questionnaire is to have it looked at by independent individuals. Since a pre-test is basically a pilot run or trial run of the study, the respondents should be reasonably representative of the sample population (Beri, 2013). After the various sections with their corresponding items had been developed, the questionnaire was informally pretested amongst a small group of female employees in the department of Human Resource Management at the higher education institution where the study was conducted. The input of a

statistician was also obtained during the development of the items and after the questionnaire was finalised.

The purpose of pretesting was to ensure that the questionnaire met the researcher's expectations in terms of the information that had to be obtained. By conducting a pre-test of the questionnaire, problematic questions were identified and eliminated. The process of pretesting aimed to distinguish errors and to determine the aptness of the design, questions and instructions of the study (Beri, 2013). Once the shortcomings of the questionnaire had been addressed, the final questionnaire was compiled and distributed.

#### **5.4.4 Reliability and Validity of the Measuring Instrument**

Content, construct and factorial validity of the LRQ were established by the results of the exploratory factor analysis, as shown in Chapter 6. One of the purposes of conducting the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was to assess the construct validity of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire designed for this study, which contains latent constructs (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). This was accomplished by detecting the underlying latent variables present in the data and identifying the underlying factor structure (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hayashi and Yuan (2010), an EFA uses a smaller number of factors to explain a larger amount of observed variables. By determining the validity of the factors, factorial validity, which is a form of construct validity, is established (Gebotys, 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). When data is submitted for factor analysis, factorial validity can be established by validating if the theorised dimensions materialise (Gebotys, 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Salkind (2012) distinguishes between content and construct validity by stating that content validity is an evaluation of the degree to which an item represents the entire universe of items, while construct validity is the measure of the degree to which a test gauges an underlying construct.

The reliability of the measuring instrument must also be determined. The internal consistency reliability of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire was ascertained by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Cronbach, 1951), which are reported on in Chapter 6. The Cronbach's alpha is a means of measuring how consistently each item assesses the same underlying construct (Salkind, 2012).

In the light of the circumstances of this study, in which the aim was not to make individual predictions based on the LRQ, but rather to investigate broad trends and certain relations between variables, the instrument was considered to be psychometrically acceptable for the purpose of the study.

## **5.5 STEP 4: ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT**

After ethical clearance was granted for the study, the email addresses of the sample were drawn. A list of all permanent female staff members was provided to the researcher by a manager in the Human Resource Information Systems department at the higher education institution where the study was conducted. The members of the sample were sent emails inviting them to participate in the research study, with a link to the actual survey provided in the email. When the respondents chose to click on the link to the survey, they accepted that they would participate in the study. They were then directed to the online survey platform, LimeSurvey, where they were greeted with a welcome message and instructions on how to proceed. The instructions for each section were repeated at the beginning of each section.

The instrument can be administered to individuals and groups, if necessary. The questionnaire is self-explanatory and therefore no supervision is required. The survey should not have taken more than 20 minutes to complete, but a time limit was not enforced. The online platform LimeSurvey automatically captured the responses of each completed survey.

The precise data administration and collection procedures that were followed are shown in Table 5.12. The data was gathered over a period of one month. Once a satisfactory number of completed surveys had been received, the survey was closed in order for data analysis to take place. None of the participants involved in the research process were harmed in any way.

**Table 5.12: Data Collection**

<b>Steps</b>	<b>Details</b>
<b>Step 1: Ethical considerations</b>	Permission to conduct the research was obtained from the institutional research ethics committee. A certificate awarding ethical clearance was received and recorded. The researcher undertook to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of all research participants.
<b>Step 2: Cover letter and welcome message</b>	A cover letter (in the form of an email) with all the necessary information that participants would require, such as the aim of the study, potential benefits, voluntary participation and withdrawal, was drafted. The researcher's contact details were provided for further enquiries. A welcome message was also prepared for the online platform. Participants were informed that they were providing voluntary consent to participate in the study by completing the survey and clicking the 'submit' button.
<b>Step 3: Uploading questionnaire onto the online platform</b>	The questionnaire was converted from a paper-based questionnaire to an online web-based survey and uploaded onto LimeSurvey. The final survey included a biographical questionnaire and the LRQ. Codes were assigned to questionnaire items, which greatly assisted when data analysis took place. Instructions were provided at the beginning of each section of the survey. The settings were arranged so that respondents could only answer the full questionnaire once.
<b>Step 4: Pretesting of the questionnaire</b>	The questionnaire was sent through to a small group of individuals as a means of pretesting the questionnaire. Minor changes were made and the online survey was verified.
<b>Step 5: Invitation to participate sent out to sample</b>	The email, which had been drafted in step 2, was sent out to the sample of the study as an invitation to participate in a research study. One reminder email was sent out two weeks after the initial email.
<b>Step 6: Waiting period</b>	The researcher waited for a sufficient response rate before closing the survey.

## **5.6 STEP 5: SCORING AND CAPTURING OF THE DATA**

All completed responses were automatically received and captured on the researcher's LimeSurvey profile. The responses were arranged according to the codes that were set previously.

Once a sufficient number of responses had been captured, the survey was closed. The data set was downloaded into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to be used for statistical analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22.0. The research data obtained from the study was entered into the program in order to generate the necessary tests required for further analysis.

## **5.7 STEP 6: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

The essence of a quantitative study is that the data is analysed by means of statistics and expressed numerically (Bordens & Abbot, 2014; Punch, 2014). In order to produce the best research results, the researcher must have a firm understanding of statistical tools and processes. Therefore a brief description of each of the statistical processes used in this study is provided in this section.

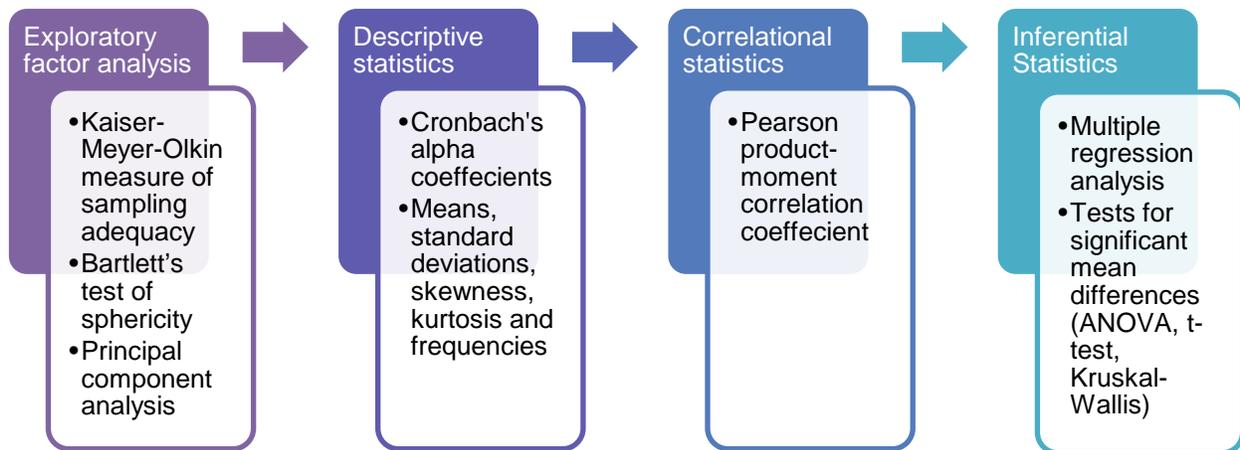
During the process of data analysis, data is usually organised, described and tested. Organising the data includes examining the data, checking for accuracy, entering data into the processor, transforming the data, and developing and documenting a database structure that integrates the different measures. For the purpose of this research, a statistician was employed to perform this step in the research process. By describing the data, the essential characteristics of the data are shown. Descriptions generally include summaries and graphical illustrations of the data, which are extremely helpful since the data is easily available and clear. The final and most important step in data analysis is the investigation of research aims. This step allows the researcher to analyse the different hypothetical theories that resulted from the literature study. Conclusions can then be drawn, which can be used to provide recommendations and as a basis for further research.

Table 5.13 illustrates the research aims that were formulated for the research study, along with the statistical procedures that were used to investigate each aim.

**Table 5.13: Research Aims and Statistical Procedures Used**

Empirical Research Aim	Statistical Procedure
<p>Research aim 1: To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.</p>	<p>Exploratory factor analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 2: To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.</p>	<p>Correlations</p>
<p>Research aim 3: To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.</p>	<p>Multiple regression analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 4: To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.</p>	<p>Multiple regression analysis</p>
<p>Research aim 5: To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.</p>	<p>Tests for significant mean differences</p> <p>t-test (marital status)</p> <p>ANOVA (staff category and age)</p> <p>Kruskal-Wallis (race and education)</p>
<p>Research aim 6: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management regarding retention strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of the research.</p>	<p>Inferences drawn from statistical analysis</p>

In the present study, data was analysed by means of an exploratory factor analysis, descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics. Figure 5.13 indicates the different steps undertaken in the empirical research process and the statistical processes performed.



**Figure 5.13: Statistical Processes**

### 5.7.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In the field of social sciences, research is conducted primarily to measure something that is not directly measurable, and these items are known as latent variables (Field, 2013). Factor analysis is a conventional multivariate analysis technique that is used to classify underlying variables or constructs from a set of observed variables (Lamb, Wolfenbarger, Money, Samouel & Page, 2015). It is usually used to rationalise patterns that occur between variables (Nisber, Elder & Miner, 2009). This type of analysis permits the number of variables representing a certain construct to be reduced (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). During factor analysis, correlations between variables are studied and strong relationships indicate similar factors within the data (Salkind, 2012).

Confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses are the two types of factor analysis that could be applied. In this study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to investigate the fundamental factors underlying the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire. When exploratory factor analysis is used, the underlying constructs are determined by condensing a large number of variables into a smaller grouping of variables (Lamb et al., 2015). Furthermore, there are two different types of models that could be used for EFA, namely principal component and common factor analysis. The present study made use of principal component analysis, whereby the primary factors were

identified by reducing the original set of variables to a smaller set of variables (Lamb et al., 2015).

Before factors can be identified using principle-axis factor analysis, the suitability of the data for factor analysis should be established. This was accomplished by using the KMO and Bartlett's Test, which includes the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970; 1974) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954). The KMO test statistic aims to calculate the feasibility of principle-axis factor analysis as a data reduction technique and the degree to which it would provide meaningful components (Coleman, 2010). The range of the KMO index is 0 to 1.0; however, a minimum value of .60 is recommended in order to produce a good factor analysis (Coleman, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition, for factor analysis to be deemed suitable, Bartlett's test of sphericity must be significant at  $p < .05$  (Pallant, 2011).

For the purpose of factor extraction for this study, the Kaiser criterion was used. The Kaiser criterion is founded on the premise that eigenvalues represent the amount of variation that can be explained by a factor and suggests that every factor with an eigenvalue that is greater than 1.0 should be retained, since this represents a significant amount of variance (Feinberg et al., 2013; Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011). Once the number of factors has been identified, the amount of variance in each variable that could be explained by common underlying factors is described by communalities (Salkind, 2012). The requirement is that communalities should be reasonably large. The principal component analysis generates estimates for the factor loadings of each of the factors. The factor loadings indicate the connection between the original variables and the resulting factors (Feinberg et al., 2013). Factor loadings range from -1 to 1 and a variable could be used to explain a factor if the factor loading is high i.e. the closer to 1, the higher the loading (Feinberg et al., 2013).

The data was analysed in a factor pattern matrix that consisted of regression coefficients (Yang, 2010). The theoretical review of the factors was also considered so that factors aligned well within each category and the proportion of variance could be explained (Yang, 2010). The factor loading threshold for the inclusion of an item in a factor was set at  $\geq .30$  for this study. Yang (2010) explains that this threshold or cut-off value is randomly selected, depending on the field of study. However, Field (2013) states that researchers typically consider a loading with an absolute value of greater than .30 as important. Theoretical expectations and the contents of factors and items were considered when decisions either to include or omit items were not clear.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis are found in Chapter 6.

## **5.7.2 Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics are used to portray the data or to provide summaries that will assist with further examination and help motivate the choice of different statistical techniques (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Welman et al., 2005). A comprehensive overview of the data is provided by descriptive statistics (Nisber et al., 2009). In this study the descriptive statistics that were specified are Cronbach's alpha coefficients, frequency data, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis.

### *5.7.2.1 Cronbach's alpha coefficients*

Correlation coefficients such as the Cronbach's alpha are used to measure the relationships between variables (Nisber et al., 2009). The reliability of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire was assessed by analysing the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Cronbach, 1951; Field, 2013; Pallant, 2011) of each factor identified in the factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient has been established as the most widespread measure of the reliability of a scale, as well as the most accurate (Field, 2013; Multon & Coleman, 2010). Pallant (2011) explains that the average correlation between every item of the scale is provided by the Cronbach's alpha statistic, which ranges from 0 to 1; the higher the value, the greater the reliability.

Different researchers recommend different minimum values for a scale to be considered reliable, For instance, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) endorse the use of a minimum Cronbach's alpha value of .70, while Kline (1999) suggests that, when investigating psychological constructs, values even below .70 could be respected due to the vast range of constructs being measured. Multon and Coleman (2010) support the view held by Kline (1999) and state that, in such cases, lower values ranging from .60 to .80 could be considered as acceptable. Another important point to remember is that the number of items on the scale should be taken into account, as a lower number of items could cause lower Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Pallant, 2011). Furthermore, it is advised that, if the value of alpha is lower than .70, the scale should be adapted by deletion of the item with the least correlation until a value of .70 or higher is reached (Trobia, 2008).

Since this study was highly exploratory in nature, the critical value of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was set at .60. Where factors fell below this value, such factors were discarded and did not form part of the study or any further statistical analysis.

#### *5.7.2.2 Means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis and frequencies*

One of the most common research statistics is an analysis of the central tendency. There are three measures of central tendency – mean, mode and median (Punch, 2014). However, the one most commonly used and most reliable in research is the mean (M) (Salkind, 2012). The mean is a statistical model used to indicate the midpoint or centre of the distribution of the scores (Field, 2013). In simple terms, the mean basically specifies the average of the respondents' scores. The mean is calculated by adding all the scores and dividing by the number of scores. The standard deviation (SD), on the other hand, indicates how the raw data are spread around the mean (Nisber et al., 2009). In other words, the standard deviation is an approximation of the average variability of a data set (Punch, 2014). Smaller values in terms of standard deviations indicate that the scores gather close to the mean, while larger values indicate that the scores stray further from the mean. The mean and standard deviation provide useful information regarding the distribution of a set of scores.

The shape or form of the data is shown by the skewness and kurtosis values (Nisber et al., 2009). In terms of frequency distributions, the skewness statistic measures symmetry, with perfectly symmetrical distributions having a skew of 0 (Field, 2013). A positive or negative skew arises depending on which side of the mean the data is distributed. Overall skewness values should range between -1 and 1 for a normal distribution to be accepted (Howell, 2004). Kurtosis provides information about the extent of the peak of the distribution and can be positive or negative (Pallant, 2011). For a perfectly normal distribution, the kurtosis value must be 0.

In certain cases the frequency data was analysed in order to describe how the respondents reacted to certain items and to support the theories used by the researcher when interpreting the results. Frequencies are used to portray the distribution of a score on a specific variable, in other words they provide evidence of the frequency with which data occurs. Frequency distributions are regularly used to describe research results (Salkind, 2012).

### 5.7.3 Correlation Statistics

Relationships play a fundamental role in data analysis. The purpose of correlations is to determine the nature of the relationship between distinct variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012; Welman et al., 2005). If a relationship does exist, correlation statistics are also used to identify its strength and direction (Welman et al., 2005).

The Pearson product moment correlation ( $r$ ) was used to identify the direction and strength of the relationships between the leadership and retention variables. Correlation coefficients range between -1 (perfect negative correlation) and 1 (perfect positive correlation), taking on any values in between (Salkind, 2012). Positive correlations imply that an increase in one variable will result in an increase in the other, while negative correlations imply an inverse relationship in which one variable increases while the other decreases. However, it must be noted that an explanation of cause is not offered by correlations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The level of significance set for this study was  $p \leq .05$ . This suggests that there was a 95% confidence level that the results from the sample could be generalised to the relationships of the total population (Salkind, 2012).

Once statistically significant relationships were identified, the focus turned to the practical effect size of the correlation. The effect size refers to the magnitude of the relationship between the variables (Field, 2013). Simply put, the effect size is used to establish the degree of the significance of the relationship between two variables. The size of the correlation coefficient illustrates the strength of the relationship between variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). A distinction must be made between the significance level and effect size. A significance level merely refers to the probability of whether or not a difference exists in the sample of the population, whereas the effect size refers to the magnitude of the difference (Field, 2013).

For the purpose of this study, the following guidelines were used to determine the practical significance of correlation coefficients, as set out by Cohen (1992):

Small effect	$r = .10$ to $.29$
Medium effect	$r = .30$ to $.49$
Large effect	$r = .50$ to $1.0$

#### **5.7.4 Inferential Statistics**

Inferential statistics were then used to further examine the relationship between the leadership and retention variables. Inferential statistics focus on deductions that could be made from the data. The data obtained from inferential statistics enables predictions to be made and to generalise the sample findings to the population (Salkind, 2012). The level of statistical significance must once again be taken into account when analysing inferential statistics ( $p \leq .05$ ). Multiple regression analyses and tests for significant mean differences were conducted for the current study.

##### *5.7.4.1 Multiple regression analysis*

Multiple regression analysis is used to forecast the functioning of the dependent variable from a number of independent variables (Nisber et al., 2009). Regression analysis is used to predict certain values of the dependent variable from the independent variables by matching the data with a predictive model (Field, 2013). Regression is usually concerned with techniques used to analyse several variables when emphasis is placed on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables – known as predictors. In simple terms, regression analysis is used to make forecasts by understanding which of the independent variables are related to the dependent variable, and to further explore the nature of these relationships.

A standard linear multiple regression analysis was carried out in this study to establish the degree of variance in the dependent variable (retention) that was predicted by the independent variable (leadership). For the purpose of this study, a separate regression analysis was conducted for the two leadership categories – leadership styles and leadership opportunities – with the retention variable. This was done in order to test the research objectives investigating these variables. The sub-scales of each of the variables were used for this purpose. The sub-scale of the retention variable was used as the dependent variable. The adjusted  $R^2$  value was used to interpret the results. Pallant (2011) explains that, when a small sample is used, the  $R^2$  value can overestimate the true value of the population, while the adjusted  $R^2$  value rectifies this and provides a better estimate of the value of the true population.

For the purpose of this study, the following guidelines were used to determine the practical significance when interpreting the magnitude of the results as set out by Cohen (1992):

Small practical effect size	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> ≤ .12
Moderate practical effect size	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> ≥ .13 ≤ .25
Large practical effect size	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> ≥ .26

However, the question of multicollinearity also had to be addressed. If there is a strong correlation between independent variables, then multicollinearity concerns arise that could result in problems in interpreting the beta coefficients (Nisber et al., 2009). Before the regression analysis was carried out, collinearity diagnostics were run to ensure that there was no multicollinearity.

#### 5.7.4.2 Test for significant mean differences

One of the finest features of inferential statistics is that it allows conclusions to be drawn about the population based on information obtained from the sample (Salkind, 2012). One of the most useful tools to accomplish this is to test for statistical significance. In order to determine if there were significant differences between the respondents of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels in terms of their perceptions of leadership and retention factors, parametric and non-parametric tests were used. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the mean scores or the variance in the scores of more than two groups (Pallant, 2011). A one-way analysis of variance includes one independent variable or factor which has different levels or groupings (Pallant, 2011). The independent samples t-test was used to test the significance of the difference between two means based on two unrelated and independent groups (Salkind, 2012). The Kruskal-Wallis test was used as the non-parametric alternative to the one-way between-groups ANOVA due to small group sizes (Pallant, 2011). This test compares scores on a variable for three or more groups by converting scores to ranks and analysing the mean rank for each group (Pallant, 2011).

The level of statistical significance was set at  $p \leq .05$ . The following tests were used for each category:

- Age and staff category: Analysis of variance (ANOVA)
- Race and educational level: Kruskal-Wallis test
- Marital status: Independent samples t-test

### **5.7.5 Level of significance**

The level of significance conveys the statistical significance of the results in terms of probability. For the purpose of this study, the  $p \leq .05$  level of significance was applied throughout the data. This is generally the level of significance used to test the hypothesis, which affords a 95% level of confidence in the results (Salkind, 2012). There are two types of errors that could be made in terms of the level of significance (Field, 2013; Salkind, 2012):

- Type I error: The researcher believes that there is no statistical difference or effect in the population when in fact there is a difference.
- Type II error: The researcher believes that there is a statistical difference or effect in the population when no difference exists.

If the level of significance indicates a  $p$ -value lower than the chosen significance level set for the study, the null hypothesis is rejected and the results are presented as statistically significant (Field, 2013).

## **5.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Of central importance in research methodology and to support the integrity of the findings, strict ethical considerations must be adhered to.

To ensure that all ethical conditions were met, the following procedures were conducted in terms of the methods employed to conduct the research:

- Research was conducted within recognised limits.
- Written permission was obtained from the host institution.
- Conventional and current resources were embraced when analysing and describing concepts.
- Theories by experts in the field of research were used in order to ensure that a scientific research process was carried out.

- Every source used was quoted and referenced explicitly.
- Participation in this study was completely voluntary, with no intimidation, force or bribery.

In terms of the protection of participant privacy, the following procedures were carried out:

- The informed and voluntary consent of every participant was obtained.
- The cover letter email provided participants with all the information concerning the research, including the aim and objectives of the study. The contact details of the researcher, supervisor and the Departmental Research and Ethics Committee were also provided.
- The survey could only be accessed via a link sent through a direct email.
- The confidentiality of the participants was ensured.
- The participants were not requested to provide their names or any information that may reveal their identity.
- The participants' information was not identifiable by anyone reading the final report.
- The participants had the option to choose not to participate in the study before submitting the questionnaire.

In terms of the protection of data, the following procedures were carried out:

- The questionnaires were saved in an online database that was secured with a password.
- The data will be retained for a period of five years on an external hard drive.
- The data is password protected.
- A computer software program will be used to delete all electronic data stored on the external hard drive. The hard drive will then be formatted. The researcher will keep a record of what was deleted and when.

## **5.9 SUMMARY**

This chapter focused on the empirical investigation and the methods used in the study. The chapter started with an introduction that listed the steps carried out in this segment of the study. Thereafter each step was explained in detail: 1) formulation of the research aims for the empirical study, 2) the determination and description of the sample, 3) a description of the design of the measuring instrument, 4) the data collection process in terms of administering the measuring instrument, 5) the scoring and capturing procedure and 6) the data analysis processes used. A discussion of the ethical considerations of the study concluded the chapter.

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to report on and discuss the statistical results of the study and to integrate the empirical research findings with the information derived from the literature review. The statistical results pertaining to the research aims that were presented in Chapter 1 are reported upon.

The empirical study continues with the following steps in this chapter:

- Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results
- Step 8: Integrating the research findings

The statistical results are reported on in terms of exploratory factor analysis, and descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics.

### 6.2 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

This section is relevant to research aim 1, namely:

- Research aim 1:  
To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring as an extraction method with promax rotation was used.

The EFA was conducted on sections B and C of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire. In addition, EFA of the different categories of questions in sections B (B1 and B2) and C (C1 and C2) were conducted separately.

Before the factors could be identified for each category using the principle-axis factor analysis, the suitability of the data for factor analysis first had to be established by analysing the results of the KMO and Bartlett's test. Table 6.1 displays the results of the KMO and Bartlett's test for categories B1 (leadership style of manager), B2 (leadership opportunities for women), C1 (retention in the workplace) and C2 (personal view of retention) of the questionnaire respectively.

**Table 6.1: KMO and Bartlett's Test: Leadership/Retention Questionnaire**

		<b>B1: Leadership style</b>	<b>B2: Leadership opportunities</b>	<b>C1: Retention in the workplace</b>	<b>C2: Personal view of retention</b>
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		.968 <i>*first run</i> .965 <i>*second run</i>	.833	.897	.858 <i>*first run</i> .866 <i>*second run</i>
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	9309.623	2651.676	2184.919	28515.311
	df	528	300	105	231
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000

The results in Table 6.1 indicate that there was enough correlation for the principle-axis factor analysis to take place in each of the different categories of the questionnaire (B1, B2, C1 and C2). This is shown by the values for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy, which were all above the threshold of .60, and the significance levels of Bartlett's test of sphericity, which were all below  $p < .05$ . It should be noted that, for sections B1 and C2 of the questionnaire, two sets of data were run due to theoretical expectations and analysis. The second run of the data was used as a means of analysis of these two sections, as will be explained in more detail further on in the chapter.

### **6.2.1 Diagnostic Statistics for Factor Analysis: Leadership/Retention Questionnaire**

Once the KMO and Bartlett's test values had been determined, the analysis identified the number of factors to be extracted by means of eigenvalues. The Kaiser criterion was used for the purpose of factor extraction in this study.

### 6.2.1.1 Leadership style of manager (B1)

The principal axis factor analysis revealed the presence of four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 62.1% of the variance in the data (shown in Table 6.2). However, in the first run of the data it was established that items 17 and 29 of section B1 of the questionnaire did not correlate well with the other factor loadings as part of the theoretical expectation. The data was then rerun to exclude these two items. After the second run of the data, the principal axis factor analysis once again revealed the presence of four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, cumulatively explaining 61.12% of the variance in the data for section B1 of the questionnaire (shown in Table 6.3).

**Table 6.2: Leadership Style of Manager (B1) - Total Variance Explained (first run)**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	18.879	52.824	52.842
2	2.351	1.968	54.810
3	1.517	4.459	59.269
4	1.130	2.830	62.098

**Table 6.3: Leadership Style of Manager (B1): Total Variance Explained (second run)**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	17.356	51.348	51.348
2	2.344	2.007	53.355
3	1.513	4.764	58.120
4	1.127	3.002	61.122

Once the number of factors and the total variance was explained, the factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed with reference to the theory in order to name or categorise each factor. As explained above, four factors were established and the factors were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Relationship orientation

Factor 2: Integrity

Factor 3: Involvement

Factor 4: Task orientation

Table 6.4 indicates the items that loaded under each factor and the names given to the factors for section B1. Items 18 and 20 did not load onto any of the factors.

**Table 6.4: Leadership Style of Manager (B1) - Pattern Matrix**

B1	Item Description	Factor			
		1 RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION	2 INTEGRITY	3 INVOLVEMENT	4 TASK ORIENTATION
1	Has widespread influence at Unisa.	.420			
2	Acts in an ethically responsible manner.		-.643		
3	Is a person of integrity.		-.582		
4	Is very strict when enforcing rules and procedures.		-.321		
5	Allows us to take responsibility for decision making.	.765			
6	Is skilled in resolving conflict in an objective, fair and impartial manner.	.710			
7	Is more concerned about results than people.				.341
8	Does his/her best to create a pleasant, sociable work environment.	.809			
9	Promotes mutual trust and respect within our section.	.678			
10	Outlines tasks and roles in great detail.				.495
11	Is prepared to "roll up his/her sleeves" to assist with tasks.			-.506	
12	Closely supervises people reporting to him/her.				.586
13	Recognises good performance.	.806			
14	Has confidence in the abilities and skills of individuals reporting to him/her.	.933			
15	Supports further development and growth of individuals in his/her section.	.795			
16	Takes personal interest in the well-being of people reporting to him/her.	.915			
17	Ensures that individuals have the necessary resources to complete tasks.	Excluded			
18	Is concerned about how favourably he/she is viewed by others.				
19	Always puts the task ahead of relationships at work.				.536
20	Uses rewards to pressure individuals into achieving goals.				
21	Is an 'absent' manager who shows little interest in either the tasks or people in his/her section.			.597	
22	Is mostly concerned about his/her own advancement.			.556	
23	Leads by example.	.558			
24	Encourages teamwork with the aim to establish a "family" culture.	.767			
25	Is able to adapt his/her management style according to the demands of the situation.	.669			
26	Treats everyone reporting to him/her in a fair manner.	.749			
27	Delegates tasks and authority in an attempt to empower individuals.	.734			
28	Is prepared to defend individuals reporting to him/her.	.887			
29	Is worthy of his/her position.	Excluded			
30	Is prepared to express his/her beliefs, motives and values despite pressure to conform.	.686			

B1	Item Description	Factor			
		1 RELATIONSHIP ORIENTATION	2 INTEGRITY	3 INVOLVEMENT	4 TASK ORIENTATION
31	Places the needs of others above his/her own.	.575			
32	Unjustly delegates tasks to lighten his/her own workload.			.624	
33	Assigns significant and important tasks to those he/she favours.			.526	
34	Takes the happiness of individuals reporting to him/her at heart.	.850			
35	Uses networking to gain power status			.493	

#### 6.4.1.2 Leadership opportunities for women (B2)

The principal axis factor analysis revealed the presence of six factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 46.37% of the variance in the data for section B2 of the questionnaire (shown in Table 6.5).

**Table 6.5: Leadership Opportunities for Women (B2): Total Variance Explained**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	5.823	20.745	20.745
2	2.993	10.227	30.972
3	2.025	5.071	36.043
4	1.413	4.314	40.358
5	1.220	3.183	43.540
6	1.155	2.827	46.368

Once the number of factors and the total variance was explained, the factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed with reference to the theory in order to name or categorise each factor. As explained above, six factors were established and the factors were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Barriers

Factor 2: Capabilities

Factor 3: Acceptance

Factor 4: Work-life balance

Factor 5: Advancement

Factor 6: Success beliefs

Table 6.6 indicates the items which loaded under each factor and the names given to the factors for section B2.

**Table 6.6: Leadership Opportunities for Women (B2) - Pattern Matrix**

B1	Item Description	Factor					
		1 BARRIERS	2 CAPABILITIES	3 ACCEPTANCE	4 WORK-LIFE BALANCE	5 ADVANCEMEN T	6 SUCCESS BELIEFS
1	Women can advance to senior positions even if they have family commitments.					-.414	
2	Gender stereotypes may prevent women from reaching leadership positions.	.823					
3	The "old boys' network" is a barrier to the progress of women in the workplace.	.812					
4	Women experience a challenge in advancing beyond a certain level in their careers (glass-ceiling phenomenon).	.786					
5	Attaining a position of power is appealing to me.		.446				
6	Taking up leadership roles is encouraged.					-.780	
7	Women are given autonomy.					-.772	
8	There are sufficient career opportunities for me at Unisa.					-.566	
9	Leadership roles are meant for men who do not have family commitments.				.337		
10	Achieving a work-life balance is a big challenge if you have a demanding career.				.525		
11	Women are often given leadership positions that are doomed to fail.						-.398
12	It is easier for men than it is for women to advance into leadership positions in this organisation.				.398		
13	Women have given up on trying to advance in their careers because they are continually being denied advancement opportunities.						-.638

B1	Item Description	Factor					
		1 BARRIERS	2 CAPABILITIES	3 ACCEPTANCE	4 WORK-LIFE BALANCE	5 ADVANCEMENT	6 SUCCESS BELIEFS
14	Women tend to abuse sick leave in order to attend to family responsibilities.				.444		
15	Even in dual-career couples, women place less emphasis on their careers than men.				.637		
16	Women with children will find it harder to advance in their careers.				.614		
17	Women can be successful managers.		.381				
18	The opportunity to grow in my career is of utmost importance to me.		.754				
19	Women in academia are able to advance into the topmost leadership positions.		.311			-.319	
20	Cultural beliefs make it difficult for men to accept women leaders.			.628			
21	Women managers are often challenged by male colleagues.			.824			
22	Women volunteer to assist with tasks in order to be considered for promotion.			.337			
23	Women would apply for managerial positions if the opportunity arises.		.526				
24	Women have little hope of becoming managers due to affirmative action.						-.449
25	Women are given guidance on advancing in their careers through personal development plans and the performance management system.					-.486	

### 6.2.1.3 Retention in the workplace (C1)

The principal axis factor analysis revealed the presence of three factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 49.4% of the variance in the data for section C1 of the questionnaire (shown in Table 6.7).

**Table 6.7: Retention in the Workplace (C1): Total Variance Explained**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.446	22.600	22.600
2	1.346	22.212	44.812
3	1.117	4.583	49.395

Once the number of factors and the total variance was explained, the factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed with reference to the theory in order to name or categorise each factor. As explained above, three factors were established and the factors were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Unique needs

Factor 2: Growth

Factor 3: Recognition

Table 6.8 indicates the items that loaded under each factor and the names given to the factors for section C1.

**Table 6.8: Retention in the Workplace (C1) - Pattern Matrix**

C1	Item Description	Factor		
		1 UNIQUE NEEDS	2 GROWTH	3 RECOGNITION
1	Understands the unique needs of women.	.565		
2	Provides flexibility in terms of working hours.	.600		
3	Offers a market-related package.			
4	Affords sufficient opportunities for growth.		-.500	
5	Provides stimulating and challenging work.		-.1083	
6	Is supportive of women who wish to achieve a work-life balance.	.547		
7	Discriminates against women in the workplace.			
8	Recognises women's expertise.			-.879
9	Is committed to the advancement of women to management positions.			-.887
10	Often expects employees to take work home due to deadlines.	.376		
11	Is an ethically responsible employer.			
12	Grants leave for women to attend to family responsibilities.	.447		
13	Allows employees to work from home or telecommute if necessary.	.468		
14	Provides better employee benefits than most other companies.	.345		
15	Has sympathy for the unique needs of working mothers.	.636		

#### 6.2.1.4 Personal view of retention (C2)

An initial exploratory factor analysis identified seven factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 50.18% of the variance in the data for section C2 of the questionnaire (shown in Table 6.9). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient only revealed two factors that were reliable. After scrutinising the results, items 3, 23 and 18 were deleted due to low communalities and the factor analysis was repeated without these three items.

After the second run of the data, the principal axis factor analysis revealed the presence of five factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0, which cumulatively explained 49.75% of the variance in the data for section C2 of the questionnaire (shown in Table 6.10). Once again, the reliability statistics of the factors were reviewed and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for factors 4 and 5 were too low to be considered reliable and these therefore were discarded. The reliability statistics of the factors are discussed in the next section.

**Table 6.9: Personal View of Retention (C2): Total Variance Explained (first run)**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.606	24.534	24.534
2	2.483	8.251	33.054
3	1.917	5.592	38.646
4	1.525	3.749	42.395
5	1.423	3.813	46.208
6	1.130	2.140	48.349
7	1.092	1.835	50.184

**Table 6.10: Personal View of Retention (C2): Total Variance Explained (second run)**

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings	
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.441	27.259	27.259
2	2.469	9.492	36.751
3	1.830	6.042	42.794
4	1.409	3.891	46.685
5	1.324	3.065	49.750

Once the number of factors and the total variance was explained, the factor loadings in the pattern matrix were analysed with reference to the theory in order to name or categorise each factor. As explained above, five factors were established, but two of the factors were not considered reliable and were discarded.

The remaining factors were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Work conditions

Factor 2: Relationships

Factor 3: Support

Table 6.11 indicates the items that loaded under each factor and the names given to the factors for section C2

**Table 6.11: Personal View of Retention (C2) - Pattern Matrix**

C2		Factor		
		1 WORK CONDITIONS	2 RELATIONSHIPS	3 SUPPORT
1	Am happy in my job.	-.506		
2	Require more support to fulfil a work-life balance.			
3	Must strictly adhere to working hours.	Excluded		
4	Often experience conflict between my work and personal life.			.731
5	Find it difficult to manage my time due to work demands.			.813
6	Would leave Unisa if I was offered a similar job and salary elsewhere.	.708		
7	Often feel like there are unrealistic work demands being placed on me.			.562
8	Love my job but dislike the work environment.		.344	
9	Have a good relationship with my supervisor.		-.946	
10	Find it difficult to concentrate at work when I am worried about my family.			
11	Am given the necessary support by my supervisor when I have family commitments.		-.819	
12	Would consider leaving this job for one that offers greater flexibility in working hours.	.532		
13	Use technology to achieve a greater work-life balance.			
14	Do not mind being available when I am not at the office.			
15	Would move from one organisation to another if the benefits are significantly better.	.679		
16	Will probably remain with Unisa until I retire.	-.783		
17	Enjoy having set working hours as it keeps my work and family life separate.			
18	Will consider leaving my job if the demands of my family are not met.	Excluded		

C2		Factor		
		1 WORK CONDITIONS	2 RELATIONSHIPS	3 SUPPORT
19	Cannot leave my job due to financial constraints even though I would want to be at home with my family.			
20	Am intimidated by my supervisor.		.553	
21	Value the opportunity to study further.			
22	Am thinking about resigning due to poor relationships at work.	.439		
23	Rely on my colleagues for moral support.	Excluded		
24	See Unisa as a stepping stone and will resign as soon as a better opportunity arises.	.817		
25	I often search for other job opportunities.	.784		

## 6.2.2 Summary: Factor Analysis

Table 6.12 summarises the findings of the factor analysis. It indicates the factors extracted from each section of the questionnaire, a brief description of the factor and the items included in each factor.

**Table 6.12: Summary of Factor Analysis**

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
<b>Section B1: Leadership style of manager</b>			
<b>Factor 1</b>	<b>Relationship Orientation</b>	Managers who value the people they work with, believe in their capabilities and are inclined to enhance relationships as a tool for effective management.	1, 5, 6, 8, 9, 13, 14, 15, 16, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 30, 31 & 34 Total = 18
<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Integrity</b>	Managers whose actions show that they have strong moral principles and who adhere to such principles no matter the circumstances.	2, 3, 4 Total = 3
<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Involvement</b>	Managers who take interest in the tasks or people in their section, who fulfil their duties and who are not only concerned with their own advancement.	11, 21, 22, 32, 33 & 35 Total = 6

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
<b>Factor 4</b>	<b>Task orientation</b>	Managers with a primary focus on the task at hand, who provide little autonomy and favour tasks over people.	7, 10, 12 & 19  Total = 4
	<b>Total number of items:</b>		31
<b>Section B2: Leadership opportunities for women</b>			
<b>Factor 1</b>	<b>Barriers</b>	Refers to the barriers that women experience when trying to advance into leadership positions.	2, 3 & 4  Total = 3
<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Capabilities</b>	Refers to the assumption that women do possess the necessary capabilities, ambition and abilities to reach leadership positions if given the opportunity.	5, 17, 18, & 23  Total = 4
<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Acceptance</b>	Refers to the struggles that women face to gain acceptance by their male colleagues.	20, 21 & 22  Total = 3
<b>Factor 4</b>	<b>Work-life balance</b>	Refers to the large role that family plays in a woman's life, and how this has an impact on her advancement and progression in her career. The dire need to strike a balance between work and life.	9, 10, 12, 14, 15 & 16  Total = 6
<b>Factor 5</b>	<b>Advancement</b>	Refers to advancement opportunities and support provided to women to reach leadership positions.	1, 6, 7, 8, 19 & 25  Total = 6
<b>Factor 6</b>	<b>Success beliefs</b>	Refers to the strong belief that women have in their ability to succeed despite the challenges that they face (self-efficacy).	11, 13 & 24  Total = 3
	<b>Total number of items:</b>		25
<b>Section C1: Retention in the workplace</b>			
<b>Factor 1</b>	<b>Unique needs</b>	The manner in which the institution meets the unique needs of women in the workplace.	1, 2, 6, 10, 12, 13, 14 & 15 Total = 8
<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Growth</b>	The provision of growth opportunities and stimulating work at the institution.	4 & 5  Total = 2

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Recognition</b>	The recognition of women's expertise and the commitment displayed towards their advancement by the institution.	8 & 9  Total = 2
	<b>Total number of items:</b>		12
<b>Section C2: Personal view of retention</b>			
<b>Factor 1</b>	<b>Work conditions</b>	Refers to work conditions, such as flexibility, salary, work environment and relationships.	1, 6, 12, 15, 16, 22, 24 & 25  Total = 8
<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Relationships</b>	Refers to the type of relationship with one's supervisor.	8, 9, 11 & 20  Total = 4
<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Support</b>	Refers to the support mechanisms provided to help employees manage their work and time effectively.	4, 5 & 7  Total = 3
	<b>Total number of items:</b>		15

### 6.3 RELIABILITY

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of each factor identified in the EFA were analysed to determine the reliability of the scale as a whole. Where factors did not meet the required reliability criteria set for this study (.60), such factors were excluded from further analysis and did not form part of the overall scale. The internal consistency reliability of the different scales of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire are reported in Table 6.13.

**Table 6.13: Internal Consistency Reliability of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire**

	Dimension name	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
<b>Section B1: Leadership style of manager</b>			
Factor 1	Relationship orientation	.97	18
Factor 2	Integrity	.84	3
Factor 3	Involvement	.81 <i>*item 11 deleted</i>	5
Factor 4	Task orientation	.66 <i>*item 7 deleted</i>	3
	Total number of items:		29

	Dimension name	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
<b>Section B2: Leadership opportunities for women</b>			
Factor 1	Barriers	.87	3
Factor 2	Capabilities	.61	4
Factor 3	Acceptance	.74	3
Factor 4	Work-life balance	.70	6
Factor 5	Advancement	.77	6
Factor 6	Success beliefs	.67	3
	Total number of items:		25
<b>Section C1: Retention in the workplace</b>			
Factor 1	Unique needs	.79	8
Factor 2	Growth	.82	2
Factor 3	Recognition	.88	2
	Total number of items:		12
<b>Section C2: Personal view of retention</b>			
Factor 1	Work conditions	.70 <i>*item 1 deleted</i>	7
Factor 2	Relationships	.77	4
Factor 3	Support	.83	3
Factor 4	Family commitments <i>*Factor rejected due to low Cronbach's alpha</i>	.32	4
Factor 5	Technology <i>*Factor rejected due to low Cronbach's alpha</i>	.51	2
	Total number of items:		14

Table 6.13 shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each section of the questionnaire. In the section on the leadership of the manager (B1), the Cronbach's alpha ranged between .66 and .97, which falls within the predetermined reliability range set for this study. Factors 3 and 4 required that items be deleted in order to reach an acceptable Cronbach's alpha value. Item 11 was deleted for factor 3 and item 7 for factor 4.

The analysis of the section on leadership opportunities for women (B2) ran smoothly, with all factors obtaining Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .61 to .87 without any items being deleted. This was acceptable, as the range fell within the predetermined reliability range set for this study.

The factors in the section on retention in the workplace (C1) established relatively high reliability, with the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .79 to .88. As with section B2

above, this section did not require that any items be deleted in order to reach the predetermined reliability range set for this study.

The section on the personal view of retention (C2) presented the most challenges in terms of analysis. The first three factors were considered reliable, with values ranging between .70 and .83. Factor 1 required that item 1 be deleted in order to reach a Cronbach's alpha of .70. However, factors 4 and 5 were both rejected from any further analyses in this study due to the low Cronbach's alpha values obtained – .32 and .51 respectively. Therefore, although five factors were initially obtained in this section, the number of factors was reduced to three due to the low internal consistency reliability of the last two factors.

Given that the purpose of this study was not to make individual predictions based on the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire, but rather to explore general trends and relationships between variables, the questionnaire was considered to be psychometrically acceptable for the purpose of the study.

#### **6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

Once the internal consistency reliability of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire was established, descriptive analysis was conducted to investigate the distribution of the scores. The means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), skewness and kurtosis were computed for each scale. Table 6.14 indicates the descriptive statistics for each of the factors under the different sections of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire. The descriptions of the scales were used to help with the interpretation of the descriptive statistics. The highest scale option (6) indicated that the participant strongly agreed with the particular item, while the lowest scale option (1) indicated that the participant strongly disagreed with the item.

In terms of section B1, which assessed how participants felt about the leadership style of their managers, the factor with the highest mean score was integrity ( $M = 4.36$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ), and the lowest score was for involvement ( $M = 3.04$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ). In terms of section B2, which looked at how participants felt about leadership opportunities available for women at the higher education institution, the factor with the highest mean score was capabilities ( $M = 4.81$ ,  $SD = .79$ ) and the factor with the lowest mean was work-life balance ( $M = 3.30$ ,  $SD = .94$ ). Section C1, which focused on how retention is viewed in the workplace, showed that both the growth ( $M = 4.28$ ,

SD = 1.18) and recognition (M = 4.28, SD = 1.13) factors attained high mean scores, while the remaining factor in that section, unique needs, obtained a lower mean of M = 3.87 and an SD = 1.07. In the final section, C2, which examined the participants' personal views of retention, the highest mean score was attributed to support (M = 3.53, SD = 1.37) and the lowest mean to relationships (M = 2.84, SD = 1.17).

The skewness values indicated that, with regard to leadership (B1) and retention (C1), the scores were positively skewed (bounded to the left), while with regard to personal view of retention (C2), the scores were negatively skewed (bounded to the right). In leadership opportunities for women (B2), the factor work-life balance had a negative skew, while the rest of the scores were positively skewed. It is stated that, for a normal distribution to take place, skewness values must fall within the range of -1 to +1 to be considered acceptable (Howell, 2004). The skewness of all factors ranged from -.95 to .54, which is within the normal range of -1 to +1 set for these coefficients. The kurtosis values for all sections ranged between -.98 to .81, which is considered normal.

**Table 6.14: Means, Standards Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis**

Construct	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	Skewness	Kurtosis
<b>Section B1: Leadership style of manager</b>				
Relationship orientation	3.96	1.30	-.62	-.65
Integrity	4.36	1.21	-.87	.15
Involvement	3.04	1.19	-.37	-.58
Task orientation	3.74	1.10	-.48	-.07
<b>Section B2: Leadership opportunities for women</b>				
Barriers	3.81	1.32	-.20	-.98
Capabilities	4.81	.79	-.59	.45
Acceptance	4.26	1.09	-.51	-.03
Work-life balance	3.30	.94	.12	-.03
Advancement	4.20	.91	-.54	.01
Success beliefs	4.08	1.12	-.45	-.19
<b>Section C1: Retention in the workplace</b>				
Unique needs	3.87	1.07	-.34	-.56
Growth	4.28	1.18	-.95	.62
Recognition	4.28	1.13	-.91	.81
<b>Section C2: Personal view of retention</b>				
Work conditions	3.29	.97	.25	-.43
Relationships	2.84	1.17	.54	-.37
Support	3.53	1.37	.12	-.97

## 6.5 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

This section is relevant to research aim 2, namely:

- Research aim 2:  
To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

Once the reliability statistics and the descriptive analysis of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire were analysed, the next step in the process was the correlation analysis by means of the Pearson product-moment correlation. These correlations identified the direction and strength of the relationship between the Leadership and Retention variables of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire. The results are indicated in Table 6.15.

The shading in Table 6.15 represents the following:

Blue shading: relationships between leadership variables

Purple shading: relationships between retention variables

Orange shading: relationships between leadership and retention variables

No shading: relationship insignificant

The main concern was the relationship between the Leadership and Retention variables (orange shading), and Table 6.15 shows that not all of the associations were significant and positive. However, a substantial number of the variables held a significant correlation, ranging between  $r \leq .15 \leq .76$  at  $p \leq .01$ , while only one variable (work-life balance with recognition) assumed a correlation of  $r \leq .14$  at  $p \leq .05$ .

Table 6.15 indicates that the first variable in terms of leadership, **relationship orientation**, had significant relationships with each of the variables of retention (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). However, three of these relationships showed a positive relationship (unique needs, growth and recognition), while the other three showed a negative relationship (work conditions, relationships, support). Recognition ( $r = .39$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) showed the strongest positive relationship, and relationships ( $r = -.76$ ;  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect) showed the strongest negative relationship. Other significant

positive relationships between relationship orientation and the retention variables were with unique needs ( $r = .36$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and growth ( $r = .37$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect). On the other hand, work conditions ( $r = -.43$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) showed a strong negative correlation and support ( $r = -.15$ ,  $p = .01$ ; small practical effect) showed a lower but still significant negative correlation. The positive relationships found suggest that leaders or managers who display a greater orientation towards relationships will most likely cater for the unique needs of women, provide greater opportunities for growth and recognise the expertise of the women working for them. It is also assumed that having a relationship-oriented manager would help to improve poor work conditions, negative relationships and a lack of support received by women from the organisation, as is indicated by the negative relationships between these variables.

Strong significant relationships were found between **integrity** and each of the retention variables – unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions and relationships – with the exception of support, where no significant relationship was found. Once again, three of the variables indicated a positive relationship (unique needs, growth and recognition) and two a negative relationship (work conditions and relationships). The strongest positive correlation was found between integrity and recognition ( $r = .34$ ,  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect). A strong negative correlation was found between integrity and relationships ( $r = .62$ ;  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect). These findings illustrate the need for managers with integrity, since this characteristic of a manager would imply an increase in respect for the unique needs of women, with a greater focus on their growth and increased recognition of their efforts. Managers with integrity would also help improve poor work conditions and unhealthy relationships.

**Involvement** displayed significant relationships with each of the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). However the direction of the relationship varied across the variables. The strongest positive relationship was with relationships ( $r = .60$ ,  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect), and other positive correlations were with work conditions ( $r = .34$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and support ( $r = .17$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). The strongest negative relationship was with recognition ( $r = -.28$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect), followed by unique needs ( $r = -.23$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and growth ( $r = -.16$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). This shows that the less involved a manager is in his/her own work, in guiding employees and in providing assistance, the more likely it would be that relationships would be strained, work conditions would continue to deteriorate, and a lack of

support from the organisation would be obvious. It would also imply that 'absent' managers would be less likely to recognise the skill and expertise of their female employees, or to help fulfil their unique requirements and provide these employees with development options.

Table 6.15 indicates that **task orientation** had significant relationships with the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions and relationships), except for support, where no significant relationship was found. A strong negative correlation was found with relationships ( $r = -.36$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and work conditions ( $r = -.15$ ;  $p = .00$ ). Task orientation correlated positively with growth ( $r = .22$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect), recognition ( $r = .27$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and unique needs ( $r = .19$ ,  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). This indicates that task-oriented managers who have a firm focus on the job could help to improve work conditions and relationships between the supervisor and subordinate. On the other hand, task-oriented leaders would provide their females employees with growth prospects, recognise their abilities in terms of the task at hand and meet their unique needs.

Significant relationships were found between **barriers** and each of the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions and relationships), except for support, where no significant relationship was found. Work conditions ( $r = .26$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and relationships ( $r = .19$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) provided positive correlations, while recognition ( $r = -.38$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect), growth ( $r = -.25$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and unique needs ( $r = -.22$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) provided negative correlations. This finding demonstrates that the presence of barriers for women in the workplace with regard to reaching leadership positions implies a subsequent increase in poor work conditions and negative relationships with their supervisor. Barriers such as gender stereotypes and the glass ceiling also indicate a decrease in recognition given to women as acknowledgement for their skills, a lack of advancement opportunities provided to these women, and neglect in catering for their unique needs.

**Capabilities** seemed to be the exception, with only one significant positive relationship found with work conditions ( $r = .23$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). No significant relationship was found between capabilities and any of the other retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, relationships and support). This is an interesting finding, as it implies that the more capable women are in terms of being successful managers and growing in their careers, the

more likely it would be that their work conditions would worsen. This could be due to managers feeling intimidated by the capabilities of their female subordinates and ultimately making their working conditions unpleasant.

Strong significant relationships were found between **acceptance** and the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). The strongest positive relationship was with work conditions ( $r = .33$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect), followed by support ( $r = .24$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and relationships ( $r = .23$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). Recognition ( $r = -.37$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) had the strongest negative correlation with acceptance, trailed by unique needs and growth ( $r = -.27$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). These results reveal that the challenges experienced by women in gaining acceptance from their male counterparts strongly influence their work conditions negatively. If women struggle with being accepted in leadership positions in the workplace, relationships with their supervisors will suffer and they will not be given the support they require from the organisation. In addition, these women's expertise will not be recognised or acknowledged, their distinct needs will not be considered and they will not be provided with growth opportunities.

The retention variables (unique needs, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support) displayed a significant relationship with **work-life balance**, except for growth, where no significant relationship was found. Support ( $r = .37$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) had the strongest positive relationship with work-life balance, followed by relationships ( $r = .23$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) and work conditions ( $r = .22$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). Unique needs ( $r = -.24$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect) had the strongest negative correlation, while recognition ( $r = -.14$ ;  $p = .01$ ; small practical effect) had the weakest negative correlation. This suggests that the greater a women's need for work-life balance (or the more work-life conflict experienced) the more likely it would be that these women would perceive an increase in poor work conditions, such as less flexibility and leave. Increased work-life conflict also suggests that women's relationships with their supervisors will be impaired and these women will identify a deficiency in the support systems or mechanisms provided by their organisations to help them manage their work and time. This is especially true when women are trying to advance in their careers, but are unable to due to an ineffective work-life balance.

**Advancement** showed strong significant relationships with all the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support), with differences in the

direction of the relationships. Recognition ( $r = .61$ ;  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect), unique needs ( $r = .59$ ;  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect) and growth ( $r = .59$ ;  $p = .00$ ; large practical effect) showed strong positive relationships, while relationships ( $r = -.37$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) displayed the strongest negative correlation with advancement, followed by work conditions ( $r = -.32$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and support ( $r = -.28$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). This finding is highly relevant to the current study, as it indicates that, if women perceive the existence of advancement opportunities available to them in the form of leadership roles and further career opportunities, they will also perceive that their skills and abilities are appreciated, along with an increase in the view that their unique needs as women are being fulfilled, and thus will be more receptive to growth and development opportunities provided to them by the organisation. In addition, the more advancement opportunities are provided for women, the more likely it would be that relationships and work conditions would improve, and more support would be provided to these women by the organisation.

Table 6.15 shows that the final leadership variable, **success beliefs**, displayed strong significant relationships with all of the retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). Once again, positive and negative correlations were present. There were strong negative correlations between success beliefs and work conditions ( $r = -.37$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect), relationships ( $r = -.33$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and support ( $r = -.18$ ;  $p = .00$ ; small practical effect). On the other hand, success beliefs showed a strong positive relationship with recognition ( $r = .49$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect), growth ( $r = .45$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect) and unique needs ( $r = .36$ ;  $p = .00$ ; medium practical effect). This result shows that, when women hold a strong conviction in their propensity for success in terms of reaching leadership positions, it also decreases the effect of poor work conditions, negative relationships with supervisors and an absence of support from organisations. Alternatively, women' success beliefs would effectively increase the recognition that they would receive for their expertise, they would be provided with more growth options and their distinct requirements would be met.

The concern for multicollinearity must be addressed. However, for this to be present,  $r \geq .90$  (Hair et al., 2010). Since the highest value of the Pearson product moment coefficient for this study was  $r = -.76$  (as shown in Table 6.15), the concern for multicollinearity could be dispelled. The results provide insight into research aim 2: To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

**Table 6.15: Bivariate Correlations Between the Sub-scales of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire**

Variables		LEADERSHIP									RETENTION							
		Relationship orientation	Integrity	Involvement	Task orientation	Barriers	Capabilities	Acceptance	Work-life balance	Advancement	Success beliefs	Unique needs	Growth	Recognition	Work conditions	Relationships	Support	
LEADERSHIP	Relationship orientation	1																
	Integrity	.83**	1															
	Involvement	-.62**	-.56**	1														
	Task orientation	.58**	.57**	-.32**	1													
	Barriers	-.13*	-.09	.21**	-.01	1												
	Capabilities	-.06	-.01	.11	.13**	.32**	1											
	Acceptance	-.15**	-.13*	.20**	-.03	.43**	.27**	1										
	Work-life balance	-.04	.02	.15**	.04	.19**	-.08	.37**	1									
	Advancement	.31**	.23**	-.16**	.18**	-.30**	.14*	-.30**	-.36**	1								
	Success beliefs	.25**	.18**	-.29**	.04	-.42**	-.10	-.47**	-.41**	.44**	1							
RETENTION	Unique needs	.36**	.23**	-.23**	.19**	-.22**	.05	-.27**	-.24**	.58**	.36**	1						
	Growth	.37**	.31**	-.16**	.22**	-.25**	-.06	-.27**	-.08	.59**	.45**	.59**	1					
	Recognition	.39**	.34**	-.28**	.27**	-.38**	-.09	-.37**	-.14*	.61**	.49**	.65**	.64**	1				
	Work conditions	-.43**	-.33**	.34**	-.15**	.26**	.23**	.33**	.22**	-.32**	-.37**	-.47**	-.46**	-.44**	1			
	Relationships	-.76**	-.62**	.60**	-.36**	.19**	.07	.23**	.23**	-.37**	-.33**	-.43**	-.35**	-.40**	.56**	1		
	Support	-.15**	-.11	.18**	.01	.02	-.07	.24**	.37**	-.28**	-.18**	-.35**	-.15**	-.18	.36**	.29**	1	

Note: N = 311, \*\* p ≤ .01, \* p ≤ .05, r = .10 ≤ .29 are practically significant (small effect). r ≥ .30 ≤ .49 are practically significant (medium effect). r = .50 ≤ 1.0 are practically significant (large effect).

## 6.6 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

This section addresses research aims 3, 4 and 5 through the use of inferential statistics. Research aims 3 and 4, which deal with understanding the predictors of retention, were analysed by means of multiple regression analyses. Research aim 5, which sought to determine the statistical differences between different biographical categories, was analysed by means of tests for significant mean differences.

### 6.6.1 Multiple Regression Analysis

This section is relevant to research aims 3 and 4, namely:

- Research aim 3:  
To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.
- Research aim 4:  
To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.

Each research aim was examined separately. The two sections of the leadership dimension of the questionnaire are referred to as leadership styles (B1) and leadership opportunities (B2) respectively. The variables identified from the factor analysis were used to determine their relationship with retention.

#### 6.6.1.1 *Regression analysis for leadership styles*

In this subsection, six separate standard multiple regression analysis models were calculated, one model for each of the six dependent retention variables (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). The results are shown in Table 6.16.

**Table 6.16: Regression Results for Leadership and Retention**

Independent variables (Leadership styles)	Dependent variables (Retention)					
	Unique needs	Growth	Recognition	Work conditions	Relationships	Support
Relationship orientation	.50**	.42**	.32**	-.48**	-.71**	-.16
Integrity	.21**	.02	.01	.06	.02	.02
Involvement	-.04	.11	-.06	.12	.21**	.14
Task orientation	-.00	-.01	.06	.14*	.12*	.14*
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.13++	.13++	.15++	.20++	.61+++	.03+
F (p value)	12.40 (.00)	12.85 (.00)	14.53 (.00)	19.78 (.00)	121.53 (.00)	3.75 (.01)

Note: Standardised Beta coefficients are presented. \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ , +  $R^2 \leq 0.12$  (small practical effect size) ++  $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$  (moderate practical effect size) +++  $R^2 \geq 0.26$  (large practical effect size)

The results show that:

➤ Unique needs:

The regression of the leadership variables on the unique needs retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 12.40$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 13% (adjusted  $R^2 = .13$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the unique needs variable. Only two out of the four leadership constructs, relationship orientation ( $\beta = .50$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and integrity ( $\beta = .21$ ;  $p = .03$ ), were statistically significant predictors of unique needs. Both indicated a positive relationship with relationship orientation as the strongest predictor of unique needs. This implies that, when leaders focus on the quality of relationships with employees and display features of integrity, such as high moral principles, it could imply that women will perceive that their unique needs are being met by their managers and the supervisors. Women thus place high value on the relationship they have with their leader and regard the leader's integrity as extremely important.

➤ Growth:

The regression of the leadership variables on the growth retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 12.85$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 13% (adjusted  $R^2 = .13$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the growth variable. Only one of the leadership constructs, relationship orientation ( $\beta = .42$ ;  $p = .00$ ), was a statistically significant predictor of growth. A strong positive relationship exists between relationship orientation and growth. This implies that, when leaders have sound relationships with female employees and take time to

learn about their ambitions and career goals, organisations consequently will invest in them by providing growth opportunities and, as such, enable the organisation to retain their services.

➤ Recognition:

The regression of the leadership variables on the recognition retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 14.53$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 15% (adjusted  $R^2 = .15$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the recognition variable. Once again, only one of the leadership constructs indicated a statistically significant relationship, as the results indicated that relationship orientation ( $\beta = .32$ ;  $p = .00$ ) was a statistically significant predictor of recognition. There is a positive relationship between relationship orientation and recognition. Part of a leader maintaining sound relationships with employees is showing appreciation and recognition for their efforts and skills. This finding indicates that, when leaders engage in meaningful relationships with female employees, this by itself signals recognition and that the leader values the contributions made by employees, which in turn has a positive effect on retention.

➤ Work conditions:

The regression of the leadership variables on the work conditions retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 19.78$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 20% (adjusted  $R^2 = .20$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the work conditions variable. Relationship orientation ( $\beta = -.48$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and task orientation ( $\beta = .14$ ;  $p = .04$ ) showed a statistically significant relationship. Relationship orientation, although being the higher predictor in this case, indicated a negative relationship with work conditions. On the other hand, task orientation indicated a positive relationship as a predictor of work conditions. This suggests that leaders with a higher relationship orientation will help to improve the satisfaction with working conditions of their female employees in terms of issues such as flexibility and work environment, thereby increasing their retention. Conversely, leaders whose primary focus is on the task, with little concern for relationships, would cause poor work conditions for female employees, such as rigid schedules and decreased benefits, implying that such leaders would lessen the likelihood of effectively retaining these employees.

➤ Relationships:

The regression of the leadership variables on the relationships retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 3.75$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for a high 61% (adjusted  $R^2 = .61$ ;

large practical effect) of the variance in the relationships variable. Of the leadership constructs, relationship orientation ( $\beta = -.71$ ;  $p = .00$ ), involvement ( $\beta = .21$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and task orientation ( $\beta = .12$ ;  $p = .01$ ) indicated a statistically significant relationship, with relationship orientation was shown to be the highest significant predictor of relationships. A negative relationship was shown between relationship orientation and relationships due to the fact that the items that constitute the relationships factor were initially formulated in a negative format. Therefore, the results reveal that leaders with a high relationship orientation towards their female employees in the workplace – who support their development and take an active interest in their well-being – will tend to have better relationships with their employees, which in turn would enhance their commitment to staying with the organisation. The opposite is true for task-oriented leaders, who tend to intensify poor relationships due to their extreme focus on tasks. Lastly, leaders who are gravely uninvolved in their work will expect weak relationships with employees due to their inattentive and vague nature.

➤ Support:

The regression of the leadership variables on the retention variable support produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 3.75$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for a mere 3% ( $R^2 = .03$ ; small practical effect) of the variance in the support variable. One of the leadership constructs, task orientation ( $\beta = .14$ ;  $p = .05$ ), indicated a statistically significant positive relationship or acted as a predictor of support. Once again, due to the negative phrasing of the items in the support factor, this finding must be interpreted in the opposite manner. Therefore task-oriented leaders would generate even less support from the organisation for women in terms of meeting work demands. The reason for this could be that task-oriented leaders do not show any concern for their employees and therefore would not obtain any value from helping their female employees to advance in their careers.

#### 6.6.1.2 Regression analysis for leadership opportunities

In this subsection, six separate standard multiple regression analysis models were calculated, one model for each of the six dependent variables for retention (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). The results are shown in Table 6.17.

**Table 6.17: Regression Results for Leadership Opportunities and Retention**

Independent variables (Leadership opportunities)	Dependent variables (Retention)					
	Unique Needs	Growth	Recognition	Work Conditions	Relationships	Support
Barriers	.00	.50	-.10*	-.01	-.02	-.13*
Capabilities	.01	-.09	-.05	.22**	.09	-.01
Acceptance	-.07	-.05	-.12*	.10	.03	.16*
Work-life balance	.02	.24**	.20**	.05	.06	.29**
Advancement	.52**	.56**	.51**	-.22**	-.29**	-.18**
Success beliefs	.11	.29**	.24**	-.18**	-.17*	.04
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.34+++	.44+++	.48+++	.22++	.17++	.17++
F (p value)	28.12 (.00)	41.66 (.00)	48.25 (.00)	15.17 (.00)	11.53 (.00)	11.78 (.00)

Note: Standardised Beta coefficients are presented. \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ ,  $R^2 \leq 0.12$  (small practical effect size),

++  $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$  (moderate practical effect size), +++  $R^2 \geq 0.26$  (large practical effect size)

The results show that:

➤ Unique needs:

The regression of the leadership opportunities variables on the unique needs retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 28.12$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 34% (adjusted  $R^2 = .34$ ; large practical effect) of the variance in the unique needs variable. The only leadership opportunities construct that indicated a statistically significant relationship with unique needs was advancement ( $\beta = .52$ ;  $p = .00$ ). A positive relationship is shown between advancement and unique needs. This means that, if women are given the opportunity to advance, one of their unique needs would be satisfied and it likely will contribute to their retention by the organisation.

➤ Growth:

The regression of the leadership opportunities variables on the growth retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 41.66$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 44% (adjusted  $R^2 = .44$ ; large practical effect) of the variance in the growth variable. Work-life balance ( $\beta = .24$ ;  $p = .00$ ), advancement ( $\beta = .56$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and success beliefs ( $\beta = .29$ ;  $p = .00$ ) are shown as statistically significant predictors of growth. A positive relationship exists between growth and these leadership opportunities variables, which implies that, if organisations provide stimulating work and development channels for their female employees, this would forecast a greater work-life balance for these women and a rise in advancement prospects in their careers, and would place a significant degree of value on their own abilities.

➤ Recognition:

The regression of the leadership opportunities variables on the recognition retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 48.25$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for a high 48% (adjusted  $R^2 = .48$ ; large practical effect) of the variance in the recognition variable. Barriers ( $\beta = -.10$ ;  $p = .05$ ), acceptance ( $\beta = -.12$ ;  $p = .02$ ), work-life balance ( $\beta = .20$ ;  $p = .00$ ), advancement ( $\beta = .51$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and success beliefs ( $\beta = .24$ ;  $p = .00$ ) indicated a statistically significant relationship. The results indicate that advancement is the highest predictor of recognition and barriers is the lowest. A negative relationship is shown between recognition and the leadership opportunities variables barriers and acceptance. This finding suggests that, when organisations give women recognition for their talents and are committed to their advancement into management positions, it would be expected that women would experience less barriers to reaching leadership positions and that they would also be shown improved acceptance by their male colleagues and superiors. A positive relationship is shown between work-life balance, advancement, success beliefs and recognition. This indicates that, by providing women with the recognition and acknowledgement that they rightly deserve, women would perceive a stronger belief in their own success as well as assistance in terms of work-life balance initiatives and be given more advancement opportunities by the organisation. All these factors would contribute positively towards their retention.

➤ Work conditions:

The regression of the leadership opportunities variables on the work conditions retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 15.17$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 22% (adjusted  $R^2 = .22$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the work conditions variable. Capabilities ( $\beta = .22$ ;  $p = .00$ ), advancement ( $\beta = -.22$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and success beliefs ( $\beta = -.18$ ;  $p = .00$ ) were indicated to be statistically significant predictors of work conditions. Capabilities and advancement were shown as the highest predictors and success beliefs as the lowest. Advancement and success beliefs indicated a negative relationship with work conditions due to the negative nature of the items comprising the work conditions factor. This simply means that, when work conditions are considered to be poor, then women would not be given chances to advance and would question their conviction of being able to succeed in reaching a higher position. On the other hand, capabilities indicated a positive relationship as a predictor of work conditions, which implies that, if women perceive that they are considered as incapable of reaching leadership positions, then poor work conditions would result.

➤ Relationships:

The regression of the leadership opportunities variables on the relationships retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 11.53$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 17% (adjusted  $R^2 = .17$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the relationships variable. Of the leadership constructs, advancement ( $\beta = -.29$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and success beliefs ( $\beta = -.17$ ;  $p = .01$ ) indicated a statistically significant relationship, with advancement as the highest significant predictor of relationships. Both variables indicate a negative relationship with relationships, which suggests that relationships with one's supervisor are severely affected when organisations do not afford women advancement opportunities and when women begin to lose their confidence in succeeding in leadership positions. If women are denied the option to advance in their careers, it undeniably causes tension in the supervisor/subordinate relationship. This, in turn, could hamper retention efforts made by the organisation.

➤ Support:

The regression of the leadership variables on the support retention variable produced a statistically significant result ( $F = 11.78$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), accounting for 17% (adjusted  $R^2 = .19$ ; moderate practical effect) of the variance in the support variable. Barriers ( $\beta = -.13$ ;  $p = .03$ ), acceptance ( $\beta = .16$ ;  $p = .01$ ), work-life balance ( $\beta = .29$ ;  $p = .00$ ) and advancement ( $\beta = -.18$ ;  $p = .00$ ) indicated a statistically significant relationship and acted as a predictor of support. Work-life balance was shown to be the highest predictor of support and barriers the lowest. A positive relationship was shown between the variables acceptance and work-life balance with support. This result proposes that, if women are shown a greater degree of acceptance by their male counterparts and if they are able to balance work and family responsibilities effectively, it could be expected that organisations would provide more support to them in meeting work demands and managing their time. This would boost the retention of women. Alternatively, a negative relationship was shown between barriers and advancement with support, which may hamper retention efforts. This demonstrates that less support would be offered by the organisation if there are barriers hindering women's progress into leadership positions and if there are no advancement opportunities available for them to pursue.

### 6.6.1.3 Summary of multiple regression analysis

The results provided insight into research aim 3: to empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women, and research aim 4: to empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women. Table 6.18 summarises the core significant predictor variables in terms of each of the six retention constructs.

**Table 6.18: Summary of Significant Predictors of Retention**

Criterion (Dependent variables)	Significant Predictor (Independent variables)	
Retention	Leadership style	Leadership opportunities
Unique needs	Relationship orientation Integrity	Advancement
Growth	Relationship orientation	Work-life balance Advancement Success beliefs
Recognition	Relationship orientation	Barriers (-) Acceptance (-) Work-life balance Advancement Success beliefs
Work conditions	Relationship orientation (-)	Capabilities Advancement (-) Success beliefs (-)
Relationships	Relationship orientation (-) Involvement Task orientation	Advancement (-) Success beliefs (-)
Support	Task orientation	Barriers (-) Acceptance Work-life balance Advancement (-)

## 6.6.2 Tests for Significant Mean Differences

This section is relevant to research aim 5, namely:

➤ Research aim 5:

To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

Age and race were examined by using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical measure. The t-test for independent samples was used for marital status, which contained only two groups, and race and educational level were considered using the Kruskal Wallis test due to the fact that, in both cases, individual group sizes were less than 30, in which case the non-parametric alternative to the ANOVA was used.

### 6.6.2.1 Age

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc tests was used to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the age groups of women with regard to their perceptions of leadership and retention factors. The respondents were divided into five groups according to their age.

The results of the ANOVA for the age category of the questionnaire are shown in Table 6.19. The different age categories were classified as follows:

1 = younger than or 25 years of age

2 = 25 to 35 years

3 = 36 to 45 years

4 = 46 to 55 years

5 = 56 to 65 years

**Table 6.19: ANOVA for Age Groups**

		F	Sig.
Relationship orientation	Between groups	1.55	.20
	Within groups		
	Total		
Integrity	Between groups	1.52	.21
	Within groups		
	Total		
Involvement	Between groups	1.87	.13
	Within groups		
	Total		
Task orientation	Between groups	1.11	.35
	Within groups		
	Total		
Barriers	Between groups	2.59	.05
	Within groups		
	Total		
Capabilities	Between groups	13.67	.00
	Within groups		
	Total		
Acceptance	Between groups	1.96	.12
	Within groups		
	Total		
Work-life balance	Between groups	.27	.85
	Within groups		
	Total		
Advancement	Between groups	1.12	.34
	Within groups		
	Total		
Success beliefs	Between groups	2.10	.10
	Within groups		
	Total		
Unique needs	Between groups	2.13	.10
	Within groups		
	Total		
Growth	Between groups	.76	.52
	Within groups		
	Total		
Recognition	Between groups	.87	.46
	Within groups		
	Total		
Work conditions	Between groups	4.39	.01
	Within groups		
	Total		
Relationships	Between groups	.47	.71
	Within groups		
	Total		
Support	Between groups	.23	.88
	Within groups		
	Total		

The results indicate that, for the dimensions of barriers, capabilities and work conditions, there was a statistically significant difference at the 5% ( $\leq .05$ ) level of significance between women of different age groups. Success beliefs and unique needs indicated a statistically significant difference at the 10% ( $\leq .10$ ) level of significance. However, this falls outside the range prescribed for this study.

In order to determine which specific groups differed from each other in terms of these findings, the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test (generally used in conjunction with an ANOVA) was used. Table 6.20 shows the results, indicating between which of the groups the differences were found.

In terms of barriers, a statistically significant difference was found between the 46 to 55 year age group and the 56 to 65 year age group ( $p = .04$ ).

In terms of capabilities, significant differences were found between the 26 to 35 year age group and the 56 to 65 year age group ( $p = .00$ ), between the 36 to 45 year age group and the 46 to 55 year age group ( $p = .00$ ), and between the 36 to 45 year age group and the 56 to 65 year age group ( $p = .00$ ).

In terms of work conditions, a statistically significant difference was found between the 36 to 45 year age group and the 56 to 65 year age group ( $p = .00$ ).

**Table 6.20: Post-hoc Test for Age Groups**

Dependent Variable	Age Categories	Age Categories	Mean Difference	Sig.
Barriers	2	3	-.14	.89
		4	-.31	.45
		5	.33	.52
	3	2	.14	.89
		4	-.16	.85
		5	.47	.17
	4	2	.31	.45
		3	.16	.85
		5	.63	.04
	5	2	-.33	.52
		3	-.47	.17
		4	-.63	.04
Capabilities	2	3	.03	.99
		4	.21	.27
		5	.78	.00
	3	2	-.03	.99
		4	.18	.37
		5	.75	.00
	4	2	-.21	.27
		3	-.18	.37
		5	.57	.00
	5	2	-.78	.00
		3	-.75	.00
		4	-.57	.00
Work conditions	2	3	-.17	.63
		4	.05	.99
		5	.43	.07
	3	2	.17	.63
		4	.22	.41
		5	.60	.00
	4	2	-.05	.99
		3	-.22	.41
		5	.38	.12
	5	2	-.43	.07
		3	-.60	.00
		4	-.38	.12

#### 6.6.2.2 Race

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine the statistical differences between the various race groups. The race groups were classified as follows:

- 1 = Black
- 2 = White
- 3 = Coloured
- 4 = Indian

Table 6.21 indicates the results from the Kruskal-Wallis test for the race groups. The variables that indicated a statistically significant difference at the 1% ( $\leq .01$ ) level of significance were barriers, capabilities, work-life balance, advancement and support. The variable unique needs was statistically significant at the 5% ( $\leq .05$ ) level, while integrity and involvement indicated a statistically significant difference at the 10% ( $\leq .10$ ) level of significance, which falls outside the range set for this study.

By analysing only those variables that showed a statistically significant difference, the results of the mean rank indicated the following:

- Barriers ( $p \leq .01$ ): Black women indicated the highest score; white women the lowest
- Capabilities ( $p \leq .01$ ): Black women indicated the highest score; white women the lowest
- Work-life balance ( $p \leq .01$ ): Indian women indicated the highest score; coloured women the lowest
- Advancement ( $p \leq .01$ ): Black women indicated the highest score; Indian women the lowest
- Unique needs ( $p \leq .05$ ): Black women indicated the highest score; coloured women the lowest
- Support ( $p \leq .01$ ): Indian women indicated the highest score; coloured women the lowest

**Table 6.21: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Race Groups**

	Chi-square	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Rank			
				B	W	C	I
Relationship orientation	2.78	3	.43	146.03	163.49	163.89	148.35
Integrity	7.22	3	.07	139.04	168.62	152.11	156.73
Involvement	7.35	3	.06	174.27	145.59	144.81	146.00
Task orientation	2.90	3	.41	163.67	148.98	177.00	149.77
Barriers	34.20	3	.00	188.65	127.28	193.11	161.15
Capabilities	52.29	3	.00	199.66	120.71	175.72	165.00
Acceptance	1.39	3	.71	153.69	153.96	177.58	163.94
Work-life balance	15.67	3	.00	132.76	171.46	131.94	183.00
Advancement	16.91	3	.00	183.23	142.41	140.64	127.65
Success beliefs	1.60	3	.66	159.55	157.35	133.11	147.67
Unique needs	8.38	3	.04	172.42	146.94	120.44	164.23
Growth	5.76	3	.12	161.71	160.01	129.19	123.17
Recognition	.94	3	.82	157.46	157.74	137.44	151.71
Work conditions	6.07	3	.11	158.77	146.38	182.56	182.56
Relationships	1.52	3	.68	159.96	150.16	168.14	166.19
Support	23.49	3	.00	128.31	176.38	120.39	180.58

### 6.6.2.3 Marital status

To determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the leadership and retention factors of single (including divorced, widowed) and married (including living together) women, the independent samples t-test for independent groups was used. This formed part of research aim 5. A 5% level of significance was applied.

Notes: 1 = single, 2 = married.

The mean performance values per group are shown in Table 6.22.

**Table 6.22: Mean Performance Values for Marital Status**

Marital Status		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Relationship orientation	1	116	3.84	1.39
	2	195	4.03	1.23
Integrity	1	116	4.20	1.27
	2	195	4.45	1.16
Involvement	1	116	3.13	1.27
	2	195	2.98	1.13
Task orientation	1	116	3.70	1.17
	2	195	3.76	1.05
Barriers	1	116	3.79	1.30
	2	195	3.82	1.34
Capabilities	1	116	4.85	.83
	2	195	4.79	.77
Acceptance	1	116	4.33	1.02
	2	195	4.22	1.13
Work-life balance	1	116	3.24	.95
	2	195	3.33	.93
Advancement	1	116	4.16	.94
	2	195	4.22	.90
Success beliefs	1	116	4.08	1.12
	2	195	4.08	1.12
Unique needs	1	116	3.85	1.09
	2	195	3.88	1.06
Growth	1	116	4.26	1.26
	2	195	4.29	1.14
Recognition	1	116	4.31	1.17
	2	195	4.26	1.11
Work conditions	1	116	3.33	1.06
	2	195	3.26	.92
Relationship	1	116	2.95	1.22
	2	195	2.77	1.14
Support	1	116	3.55	1.40
	2	195	3.52	1.35

The results of the t-test are shown in Table 6.23.

**Table 6.23: Independent Samples Test for Marital Status**

Independent Samples Test						
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Relationship orientation	Equal variances assumed	6.02	.02	-1.26	309	.21
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.22	218.82	.22
Integrity	Equal variances assumed	4.45	.04	-1.75	309	.08
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.71	223.98	.09
Involvement	Equal variances assumed	5.63	.02	1.12	309	.27
	Equal variances not assumed			1.08	219.40	.28
Task orientation	Equal variances assumed	1.47	.23	-.41	309	.68
	Equal variances not assumed			-.40	221.11	.69
Barriers	Equal variances assumed	.19	.6	-.20	309	.85
	Equal variances not assumed			-.20	247.08	.85
Capabilities	Equal variances assumed	.49	.48	.70	309	.49
	Equal variances not assumed			.69	226.71	.49
Acceptance	Equal variances assumed	.98	.32	.86	309	.39
	Equal variances not assumed			.89	261.15	.38
Work-life balance	Equal variances assumed	.46	.50	-.86	309	.39
	Equal variances not assumed			-.85	236.75	.40
Advancement	Equal variances assumed	1.13	.29	-.50	309	.62
	Equal variances not assumed			-.49	232.39	.62
Success beliefs	Equal variances assumed	.00	.98	-.02	309	.99
	Equal variances not assumed			-.02	241.91	.99
Unique needs	Equal variances assumed	.13	.72	-.25	309	.80
	Equal variances not assumed			-.25	236.10	.80

Independent Samples Test						
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Growth	Equal variances assumed	1.89	.17	-.26	309	.79
	Equal variances not assumed			-.26	223.23	.80
Recognition	Equal variances assumed	.06	.81	.42	309	.68
	Equal variances not assumed			.41	231.89	.68
Work conditions	Equal variances assumed	3.90	.05	.65	309	.52
	Equal variances not assumed			.63	215.56	.53
Relationships	Equal variances assumed	.78	.38	1.32	309	.19
	Equal variances not assumed			1.30	229.22	.20
Support	Equal variances assumed	.02	.89	.15	309	.88
	Equal variances not assumed			.15	235.33	.88

The null hypothesis of equal variances assumed could not be rejected ( $p = 0.5$ ) for task orientation, barriers, capabilities, acceptance, work-life balance, advancement, success beliefs, unique needs, growth, recognition, relationships and support. We thus can assume equal variances for each of these variables ( $p > .05$ ).

In the case of relationship orientation, integrity, involvement and work conditions, equal variances could not be assumed ( $p < .05$ ).

The t-test results indicate that no statistically significant difference existed between single and married women in terms of their perceptions of retention factors at the 5% level of significance. However, the results for the variable integrity ( $F = 4.45$ ;  $t(319) = -1.71$ ;  $p \leq .1$ ) show that there is a difference between single and married women between their perception of this retention factor at the 10% level of significance. However, this falls out of the range of this study, which set the level of significance at 5%. No other statistically significant differences were found between single and married women and the remaining variables.

Therefore, the results of the independent samples t-tests did not provide supportive evidence for this segment of research aim 5.

#### 6.6.2.4 Staff category

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post-hoc tests was used to determine if there were statistically significant differences between the age groups of women with respect to their perceptions of leadership and retention factors. The respondents were divided into four groups according to their staff category. The different staff categories were classified as follows:

- 1 = Top management
- 2 = Professional/technical
- 3 = Academic
- 4 = Administrative

The results for the ANOVA of the staff category item of the questionnaire are shown in Table 6.24.

**Table 6.24: ANOVA for Staff Category**

		F	Sig.
Relationship orientation	Between groups	2.92	.03
	Within groups		
	Total		
Integrity	Between groups	1.37	.25
	Within groups		
	Total		
Involvement	Between groups	1.66	.175
	Within groups		
	Total		
Task orientation	Between groups	.69	.56
	Within groups		
	Total		
Barriers	Between groups	5.50	.00
	Within groups		
	Total		
Capabilities	Between groups	.56	.64
	Within groups		
	Total		
Acceptance	Between groups	.54	.65
	Within groups		

		F	Sig.
	Total		
Work-life balance	Between groups	5.07	.00
	Within groups		
	Total		
Advancement	Between groups	1.62	.19
	Within groups		
	Total		
Success beliefs	Between groups	1.81	.15
	Within groups		
	Total		
Unique needs	Between groups	2.67	.05
	Within groups		
	Total		
Growth	Between groups	3.63	.01
	Within groups		
	Total		
Recognition	Between groups	2.67	.05
	Within groups		
	Total		
Work conditions	Between groups	4.45	.00
	Within groups		
	Total		
Relationships	Between groups	.88	.45
	Within groups		
	Total		
Support	Between groups	5.28	.00
	Within groups		
	Total		

The results indicate that, for the relationship orientation variables, barriers, work-life balance, growth, recognition, work conditions and support there was a statistically significantly difference at the 5% ( $\leq .05$ ) level of significance between women in different staff categories.

In order to determine which specific groups differed from each other with regard to the above findings, the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test (generally used in conjunction with an ANOVA) was used. Table 6.25 shows the results, indicating between which of the groups the differences were found.

In terms of relationship orientation, a statistically significant difference was found between the top management and professional/technical staff categories ( $p = .03$ ).

In terms of barriers, work-life balance, growth and recognition, statistically significant differences were found between the academic and administrative staff categories ( $p = .00$ ;  $p = .00$ ;  $p = .01$ ;  $p = .03$ ).

In terms of work conditions and support, a statistically significant difference was found between the professional/technical and academic staff categories ( $p = .04$ ;  $p = .04$ ), and between the academic and administrative staff categories ( $p = .04$ ;  $p = .00$ ).

**Table 6.25: Post-Hoc Test for Staff Categories**

Dependent Variable	Staff Categories	Staff Categories	Mean Difference	Sig.	
Relationship orientation	1	2	-2.09	.03	
		3	-2.11	.03	
		4	-1.93	.05	
	2	1	2.09	.03	
		3	-.01	1.00	
		4	.16	.88	
	3	1	2.11	.03	
		2	.01	1.00	
		4	.17	.70	
	4	1	1.93	.05	
		2	-.16	.88	
		3	-.17	.70	
	Barriers	1	2	.12	.10
			3	.51	.91
			4	-.14	.10
		2	1	-.12	.10
3			.40	.27	
4			-.25	.66	
3		1	-.51	.91	
		2	-.40	.27	
		4	-.65	.00	
4		1	.14	.10	
		2	.25	.66	
		3	.65	.00	
Work-life balance	1	2	.56	.73	
		3	.48	.81	
		4	.89	.35	
	2	1	-.56	.73	
		3	-.09	.95	
		4	.33	.15	
	3	1	-.48	.81	
		2	.09	.95	
		4	.41	.00	
	4	1	-.89	.35	
		2	-.33	.16	
		3	-.41*	.00	

Dependent Variable	Staff Categories	Staff Categories	Mean Difference	Sig.
Growth	1	2	.36	.95
		3	-.02	1.00
		4	.43	.92
	2	1	-.36	.95
		3	-.39	.20
		4	.07	.99
	3	1	.02	1.00
		2	.39	.20
		4	.46	.01
	4	1	-.43	.92
		2	-.07	.99
		3	-.46	.01
Recognition	1	2	-.28	.98
		3	-.47	.89
		4	-.08	.10
	2	1	.28	.98
		3	-.19	.76
		4	.20	.71
	3	1	.47	.89
		2	.19	.76
		4	.39	.03
	4	1	.08	.10
		2	-.20	.71
		3	-.39	.03
Work conditions	1	2	.68	.63
		3	1.10	.20
		4	.79	.49
	2	1	-.68	.64
		3	.43	.04
		4	.11	.90
	3	1	-1.11	.20
		2	-.43	.04
		4	-.32	.04
	4	1	-.79	.49
		2	-.11	.90
		3	.32	.04
Support	1	2	.84	.71
		3	.25	.10
		4	.85	.70
	2	1	-.84	.72
		3	-.59	.04
		4	.01	1.00
	3	1	-.25	.10
		2	.59	.04
		4	.60	.00
	4	1	-.85	.70
		2	-.01	1.00
		3	-.60	.00

#### 6.6.2.5 Educational level

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine the statistical differences between the various educational levels of the respondents. The educational levels were classified as follows:

- 1 = Lower than Grade 12
- 2 = Grade 12
- 3 = Certificate (one year)
- 4 = Diploma (three years)
- 5 = Degree
- 6 = Honour's degree
- 7 = Master's degree
- 8 = Doctoral degree

Table 6.26 indicates the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the educational levels of the respondents. Category 1 (lower than Grade 12) was excluded from the analysis due to the small number of respondents in this group ( $n = 4$ ). The only variable that indicated a statistically significant difference at the 1% ( $\leq .01$ ) level of significance was support. The variables work-life balance and work conditions were statistically significant at the 5% ( $\leq .05$ ) level, while capabilities indicated a statistically significant difference at the 10% ( $\leq .10$ ) level of significance (outside the range set for this study).

By analysing only those variables that showed a statistically significant difference, the results of the mean rank indicated the following:

- Work-life balance ( $p \leq .05$ ): Respondents with a Master's degree indicated the highest score; respondents with a Grade 12 the lowest
- Work conditions ( $p \leq .05$ ): Respondents with a Master's degree indicated the highest score; respondents with a doctorate the lowest
- Support ( $p \leq .01$ ): Respondents with a Master's degree indicated the highest score; respondents with a Grade 12 the lowest

**Table 6.26: Kruskal-Wallis Test for Educational Level**

	Chi-square	Df	Asymp. sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Rank						
				G12	Cert	Dip	Deg	Hons	M	D
Relationship orientation	2.07	6	.91	174.00	152.85	146.78	139.45	155.70	156.65	155.92
Integrity	3.69	6	.72	162.97	144.32	133.65	145.00	166.89	156.31	151.68
Involvement	3.96	6	.68	150.23	183.24	168.81	159.22	155.61	144.91	147.92
Task orientation	4.47	6	.61	177.30	165.26	146.67	142.70	168.17	147.46	148.96
Barriers	10.00	6	.12	177.07	193.85	168.07	167.05	154.28	146.45	132.71
Capabilities	10.65	6	.10	169.93	185.85	154.31	162.03	171.53	143.22	131.70
Acceptance	6.11	6	.41	181.57	186.63	150.22	137.97	152.26	159.19	143.84
Work-life balance	12.44	6	.05	114.37	167.29	120.87	138.14	149.95	169.57	167.19
Advancement	3.76	6	.71	177.90	165.12	165.63	133.82	153.08	154.01	153.06
Success beliefs	6.18	6	.40	146.13	108.21	159.46	150.42	150.49	159.50	164.85
Unique needs	6.00	6	.42	176.83	177.82	161.81	141.70	164.52	150.74	138.45
Growth	6.31	6	.39	164.13	148.68	157.50	137.43	137.18	165.17	164.28
Recognition	4.20	6	.65	153.20	169.59	136.78	139.19	149.02	158.47	165.94
Work conditions	14.97	6	.02	125.47	159.97	152.33	180.38	172.16	154.40	122.86
Relationships	2.24	6	.90	130.77	161.91	156.04	158.99	157.33	157.73	144.42
Support	18.51	6	.01	107.47	151.97	116.96	126.07	156.80	171.87	171.70

The results displayed in this section provide partial support for research aim 5: To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women’s perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels. However, it must be noted that no statistically significant differences were found for women of different marital status at the 5% level of significance.

## 6.7 INTEGRATION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

In this section, the results are discussed in terms of the research aims. Each research aim, with its corresponding statistical findings, is presented and analysed. Table 6.27 presents an overview of the research aims that were formulated for the purposes of this study, the statistical procedures that were performed to investigate the research aims and the final decisions reached.

**Table 6.27: Summary of Decisions Regarding the Research Aims**

Empirical research aim	Statistical procedure	Supportive evidence
Research aim 1: To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.	Exploratory factor analysis	YES
Research aim 2: To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.	Correlations	YES
Research aim 3: To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.	Multiple regression analysis	YES
Research aim 4: To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.	Multiple regression analysis	YES
Research aim 5: To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women’s perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels	Tests for significant mean differences  t-test ANOVA Kruskal-Wallis	YES (Partially)

### 6.7.1 Research Aim 1

The results provide evidence to support research aim 1: To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

This research aim was investigated by means of exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics and the frequency distributions of items. Each section of the Leadership/Retention Questionnaire was analysed separately in order to determine the retention factors from a leadership perspective as identified by the respondents. The different sections of the questionnaire with the resultant factors are discussed below. Sections B1 and B2 of the questionnaire focused on retention factors from a leadership perspective, and sections C1 and C2 have a specific focus on general retention factors.

#### Section B1: Leadership style of your manager

Four factors were extracted from the data in this category, namely:

- Relationship orientation: Managers who value the people they work with, believe in their capabilities and are inclined towards enhancing relationships as a tool for effective management.
- Integrity: Managers whose actions show that they have strong moral principles and who adhere to such principles, no matter the circumstances.
- Involvement: Managers who take an interest in the tasks or people in their section, who fulfil their duties and who are not only concerned with their own advancement.
- Task orientation: Managers with a primary focus on the task at hand, who provide little autonomy and who favour tasks over people.

These factors relate to the type of leadership or leadership styles displayed by the managers of the respondents. Each of these factors could be linked to certain of the leadership styles discussed in Chapter 3.

A leader who has a high relationship orientation falls into the democratic and participative category of leaders. These leaders involve their employees in the decision-making process and encourage input from all sides, this type of leadership helps to develop

people skills and motivates employees by making them feel as if they are a crucial part of the team or organisation (Bhatti, Maitlo, Shaikh, Hashmi & Shaikh, 2012). Relationship orientation could also be linked to transformational leadership, which is seen as a person-centred approach to leadership, where the needs of the followers are aligned to those of the organisation (Tyssen, Wald & Spieth, 2014). The respondents indicated that they slightly agreed with the items comprising this factor ( $M = 3.96$ ). The sentiments expressed in the questionnaire regarding this dimension focused on the emphasis placed on relationships by some managers, such as increased responsibility for decision making, confidence in the abilities of team members, being supportive of development and growth and placing the needs of others above their own, to name a few.

The factor of integrity could be linked to authentic leadership, in which the ethical principles and morals of a leader are valued above all else. Leaders who follow this approach must be true to their intrinsic nature and always try to maintain their best qualities, regardless of the situation or circumstances (Cutler, 2014; Roe, 2014). The fact that integrity was identified as a factor is interesting, as it shows that the respondents value morality and ethical practices in their leaders. This factor also received the highest mean score ( $M = 4.36$ ), which shows that the respondents agreed with these sentiments and placed high value on the integrity of their managers.

The involvement, or rather the lack thereof (as applied in the context of this study), of managers comprised the third factor in this section. It could be mistaken for the laissez-faire leadership style, which advocates high degrees of autonomy among participants and leaders taking a back seat. However, the critical difference between involved and laissez-faire leaders is that, from the background of this study, the factor of involvement refers to leaders who purposefully dodge their responsibilities and who only consider themselves and their own advancement or promotion within the organisation. Laissez-faire leaders, on the other hand, care about and encourage their employees. Although they may remain in the background it is only to give the employees a chance to prove themselves as capable (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013). The distinction here comes from the intention behind the lack of involvement by the leaders. This factor obtained the lowest mean score in this section ( $M = 3.04$ ), which indicates that the respondents tended to slightly disagree with the items expressed by this factor. This finding tells us that the respondents do not see their managers as absent or uninvolved.

The final factor in this category is task orientation. Task-oriented leaders focus more on the job that needs to be done than on relationships or people. Such leaders usually

enforce strict rules and provide little autonomy. This factor is associated with leaders who are autocratic or transactional in nature. Autocratic leaders are dominating and firmly adhere to the rules when carrying out work tasks (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013). Transactional leaders also focus on fulfilling the task, with the relationship between a leader and a follower being based on the concept of exchange (Roe, 2014). In this type of relationship, a manager's primary role is to assist his/her employees in carrying out the task or job at hand. The respondents indicated that they slightly agreed with this factor ( $M = 3.74$ ), signifying that some of the managers at the institution have task-oriented or autocratic tendencies or traits.

### Section B2: Leadership opportunities for women

Six factors were extracted from the data in this category, namely:

- **Barriers:** Refers to the obstacles that women experience when trying to advance into leadership positions.
- **Capabilities:** Refers to the assumption that women possess the necessary capabilities, ambition and abilities to reach leadership positions if given the opportunity.
- **Acceptance:** Refers to the struggles that women face to gain acceptance by their male colleagues.
- **Work-life balance:** Refers to the large role that family plays in a woman's life, and how this has an impact on her advancement and progression in her career. It further refers to the dire need to strike a balance between work and life.
- **Advancement:** Refers to advancement opportunities and support provided for women to reach leadership positions.
- **Success beliefs:** Refers to the strong belief that women have in their ability to succeed despite the challenges that they face (self-efficacy).

This section of the questionnaire dealt specifically with the issue of women's advancement into higher positions. The factors that emerged are fascinating and can easily be integrated with previous research. The following three factors – barriers, acceptance and advancement – are intricately linked to the challenges that women face in reaching top leadership positions or advancing in their careers. Issues such as the 'glass ceiling' and the 'old-boys' network' come into play here. It is no secret that women face different challenges from their male counterparts. Among these challenges are the obstacles in their path, such as gender stereotypes (Lips, 2013) and the gender pay gap

(Bishu & Alkadry, 2016) [barriers], the lack of acknowledgement by male colleagues or managers, the importance assigned to cultural beliefs, which deny women the approval they deserve [acceptance], and the absence of development opportunities or the presence of such opportunities that are doomed to fail – the glass cliff phenomenon (Mulcahy & Linehan, 2014) [advancement].

Chapter 2 provided some statistics on the slow progress of women into senior positions and their low representation in this regard. It is evident that the women in the sample also felt strongly regarding these issues, as they emerged as key factors in this category. These women experience hurdles in their path to leadership positions, and struggle to gain recognition as experienced and qualified individuals. One of the key themes that has been raised in this section is that the respondents perceive that advancement opportunities for women do exist at the higher education institution. They repeatedly reported positively on items that point to the provision of advancement opportunities. The respondents clearly reported that women are given autonomy, are encouraged to take up leadership roles and that there are sufficient advancement opportunities at the institution. This finding is supported by the high mean score obtained for the advancement factor ( $M = 4.20$ ).

The other three factors – capabilities, success beliefs and work-life balance – that were identified in this category are also related to key trends in the literature. Firstly, with the arrival of the twenty-first century, the roles of women and men changed drastically, as was noted in Chapter 2. There are more women in the workforce now than ever before and these women are working harder to level the playing field by obtaining more experience and higher levels of education. This finding is consistent with the demographics of the sample, where 79.8% of the respondents held a bachelor's degree or higher qualification. This indicates that women do have the capabilities required to succeed in leadership positions. In terms of the current study, the high mean score obtained for this factor (capabilities:  $M = 4.81$ ) shows that the respondents believe in their capabilities as working women and want to succeed or advance in their careers. Therefore, organisations must take heed and choose to promote and advance qualified and capable women.

In the same breath, women also share an inherent belief in themselves and in their abilities. They are strong-willed and many women of the twenty-first century are slowly breaking down barriers and using their self-belief to get to where they want to be. This incorporates the factor of success beliefs, which shows that the respondents found it

critical to note their strong beliefs in their capacity to thrive and triumph against all odds. This is supported by the mean score obtained for success beliefs ( $M = 4.08$ ). This variable used the reverse of statements of items 11, 13 and 24, which were phrased negatively, and indicates that the respondents agreed with the statements when portrayed positively with regard to women's success, but disagreed when the items were phrased negatively, depicting that women could not succeed and were destined for failure.

The final factor to be discussed in this category is work-life balance. This is one of the key topics of the new world of work and many organisations are trying to incorporate policies and procedures that support a more effective balance between work and life (Barber, Grawitch & Maloney, 2016). The respondents of this study referred specifically to work-life balance as an important factor in their perceptions of reaching leadership positions or taking heed of leadership opportunities, which shows that many of them may struggle with balancing the needs of work with the needs of the family. The majority of the respondents (52.4%) had one or more children below the age of 18, and an astounding 65.9% were the main contributors to the household in terms of income, which means that these women require an effective strategy to balance work and life or to reduce work-life, conflict since they have work, household and childcare responsibilities. This finding is supported by many of the items, but the one that stands out the most is that 79.1% of the respondents agreed with the statement that achieving a work-life balance is a big challenge if you have a demanding career.

#### Section C1: Retention in the workplace

In this section of the questionnaire, the focus fell on how the respondents felt about the retention practices of their institution specifically. There were three factors that were extracted from the data in this category, namely:

- Unique needs: The manner in which the institution meets the unique needs of women in the workplace.
- Growth: The provision of growth opportunities and stimulating work at the institution.
- Recognition: The recognition of women's expertise and the commitment displayed towards their advancement by the institution.

The factors identified show that the respondents believe that their institution considers the unique needs of women in the form of flexibility, work-life balance, family responsibilities and employee benefits. Many of the respondents (54.7%) even agreed that the university

has sympathy for the needs of working mothers specifically. This is a positive finding that indicates that this university is on the right path in terms of taking into account the distinct needs of women and providing support where possible. Work-life balance initiatives encompass flexible work arrangements (Allen et al., 2013), family-friendly practices (Beauregard & Henry, 2009) and supportive benefits for employees – all of which have been linked to retention.

The respondents also revealed that the institution was making an attempt to provide growth opportunities for its staff. This refers to aspects such as professional development, training, promotion and stimulating work tasks, which are central to the concept of retention (Das & Baruah, 2013; Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006; Munsamy & Bosch Venter, 2009). The respondents also suggested that the university effectively appreciated and recognised the capabilities of women and in essence displays some degree of commitment towards their advancement within the organisation. Both elements of growth and recognition obtained high mean scores ( $M = 4.28$ ) respectively, which indicates that the respondents agreed that these elements were present in the organisation.

By looking at these three factors holistically (unique needs, growth and recognition), a clear picture is provided of what the respondents perceive as retention strategies available in their organisation. In this context it would appear that the respondents' value that their unique needs are taken into account, that their organisation provides growth opportunities for them, which enables them to progress in their careers, and finally recognises their expertise and capabilities.

#### Section C2: Personal view of retention

The final section of the questionnaire aimed to determine how respondents felt about retention from a personal point of view. There were three factors that were extracted from the data in this category, namely:

- Work conditions: Refers to work conditions such as flexibility, salary, work environment and relationships.
- Relationships: Refers to the type of relationship with one's supervisor.
- Support: Refers to support mechanisms provided to help employees effectively manage their work and time.

This is an important element of the study since it explicitly identifies the factors that the respondents directly believe to be significant to their retention. The first factor that was identified related to the work conditions available to employees. The employees were asked whether certain features of the workplace and working environment would have an impact on their decision to stay with or to leave the organisation. This included elements such as salary, similar tasks or job, flexibility in working hours, benefits and poor relationships at work. As is evident, this is a very diverse list that tries to take into account the different aspects that employees look for in an ideal job. The respondents indicated that, in terms of benefits and flexibility, they would consider leaving the organisation for one that could provide a better offer. In terms of leaving the organisation for a similar salary or job, the respondents were undecided, with 50.8% of them disagreeing and 49.2% agreeing. However, on a more positive note, the respondents indicated that, from a personal point of view, they were content with working at the higher education institution and would not go out purposefully looking for another job, and that many would consider staying at the institution until retirement.

The second factor identified in this section was relationships, specifically the nature of the relationship with one's supervisor. An interesting finding in this section shows that, although the majority of employees indicated that they have a good relationship with their supervisor and were not intimidated by him/her, they also revealed that supervisors tend to fall short when it comes to being given the necessary support to attend to family commitments. Supervisors should take heed of such a finding, since family-supportive supervision has gained much interest in recent years and could be linked to commitment to the organisation (Basuil, Manegold & Casper, 2016). The low mean score for this factor ( $M = 2.84$ ) could be attributed to how respondents answered with regard to the low levels of support received and the disagreement on the item regarding intimidation by one's supervisor.

The final retention factor identified from the respondents' personal views was support. This factor considers the support provided to employees by the organisation in terms of time and task management in fulfilling their work demands. The mean score for this factor ( $M = 3.53$ ) indicated that the respondents were indecisive regarding the support that they received, with some agreeing with the sentiments expressed and others disagreeing. However, it would appear that more of the respondents agreed that they experienced conflict between their work and personal life and found it difficult to manage their work demands. One of the ways to address the issue of work-life conflict is for organisations to

provide support to employees to find a better balance between work and life roles (Greenhaus, Ziegert & Allen, 2012).

The retention section of the questionnaire was divided into two categories due to the phrasing of the questions. Section C1 referred to retention in the workplace, and section C2 referred to the respondent's personal view of retention. For the purposes of further analysis, the retention factors identified in these two sections were combined to represent the six retention factors classified by this study.

Therefore, research aim 1 has been achieved by identifying factors that are considered critical to the retention of women from a leadership perspective.

### **6.7.2 Research Aim 2**

The results provided support for research aim 2: To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

This research aim was investigated by means of correlations. The correlation statistics of the leadership and retention factors were examined (refer to Table 6.15). The results indicate that there was a statistically significant relationship between most of the variables. The strongest positive correlation was found between advancement and recognition. This suggests that, if more advancement opportunities are presented to women in the workplace, they will be recognised more for their efforts and skill. This could provide numerous benefits to both the individual employee and the organisation. In terms of employee morale, if women feel a sense of belonging and recognition, with a chance to further their careers, they most likely will be committed to the organisation and increase their productivity. In an article in the Harvard Business Review entitled "Women rising: The unseen barriers", the lack of recognition for women as competent leaders was identified as one of the barriers to success. Effectively, women must also identify themselves as leaders before anyone else will accept them as such (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2013).

On the other hand, the strongest negative relationship was found between relationship orientation and relationships. This signifies that the more relationship oriented one's supervisor is, the less likely it is that a negative relationship will be found between the supervisor and employee. Relationship-oriented leaders or managers focus on forming a bond with their employees and emphasise positive interactions (Cutler, 2014). If

managers take the time to create meaningful and high-quality relationships with their employees, employees will also value the relationship and this could serve as an important retention factor.

Some of the other interesting findings in this section are also discussed. When distinguishing between task- and relationship-oriented leaders, it should be noted that relationship orientation correlated with almost all the retention variables (except support), in the same manner as task orientation. In other words, both task and relationship orientation displayed positive correlations with unique needs, growth and recognition and negative correlations with work conditions and relationships. This indicates that task- and relationship-oriented leaders may actually help to improve working conditions and relationships, cater for the unique needs of their female employees, provide them with growth opportunities and recognise their efforts. However, the practical effect between the variables is greater for relationship orientation, which implies that leaders who place a greater focus on relationships may be more effective in terms of retaining employees. This finding is supported by recent research that showed that transformational leaders who place emphasis on mutual trust, loyalty and reciprocal relationships encourage the retention of employees (Tse, Huang & Lam, 2013). In addition, the interpersonal element of leadership, which stems from helping others, providing support and forming a bond, has been proven to be a key theme in leadership effectiveness (Gartzia, Ryan, Balluerka & Aritzeta, 2012; Yukl, 2013).

A negative relationship was also indicated between acceptance and three of the retention variables, namely unique needs, growth and recognition. This finding suggests that, if an employee's unique needs are taken into account, and if she is provided with growth opportunities and recognition for her efforts, she will be less likely to struggle with acceptance by her male counterparts. The same could be said for barriers, which indicated an inverse relationship with the same three retention variables. Success beliefs showed positive, significant relationships with unique needs, recognition and growth, which illustrates that the greater a woman's conviction in her own abilities and capacity for success, the more likely it would be that the organisation would cater for her specific needs, acknowledge her skills and provide her with development opportunities. In addition, women who have strong self-efficacy would likely aim to improve undesirable working conditions, create a healthy relationship with their supervisors and receive further support from their organisations. This is indicated by the negative relationship found between success beliefs and the three adverse factors – work conditions, relationships and support.

Also worthy of mention is that poor work conditions, a negative relationship with one's supervisor and a lack of support from the organisation will effectively cause more work-life conflict. On the other hand, if women are recognised as competent and if their unique needs are considered, then their work-life balance will increase. It has been reported that working conditions, especially those that increase work-life balance, play a key role in the management and retention of employees (Deery & Jago, 2015).

In essence, although a few of the variables did not indicate statistically significant relationships, when viewed overall it could be determined that there indeed is a relationship between leadership and retention.

### **6.7.3 Research Aim 3**

The results provide support for research aim 3: To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.

For the purpose of this research aim, the leadership factors identified in section B1 (leadership style of your manager) were analysed against the six retention factors by means of a multiple regression analysis.

The results did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between all of the leadership and retention factors. However, some variables emerged as significant predictors of retention. The strongest predictor in terms of leadership styles was relationship orientation, which indicated significant relationships with five out of the six retention factors. Positive relationships were found between relationship orientation and unique needs, growth and recognition. This finding illustrates that leaders with a strong orientation towards relationships and people will better cater for the unique needs of women, provide them with greater growth opportunities and be more inclined to recognise their efforts and capabilities. Conversely, negative relationships were identified between relationship orientation and work conditions and relationships. This is a logical result, which argues that if a leader is relationship oriented in nature then he/she would have a greater consideration for the working conditions of their employees and would ensure that poor conditions are eliminated or decreased. In addition, leaders who show concern for people will be unlikely to have negative relationships with their subordinates.

Therefore, it can be stated that relationship orientation is a significant predictor of retention. There is compelling evidence that supports this finding. Firstly, the essence of leadership lies in its very definition, which signifies that leadership in any form depends on some type of relationship with followers (Ciulla, 2014). Furthermore, many of the leadership theories also make reference to relationship orientation as a dimension of leadership, such as the democratic leadership style identified in the Lewin Studies (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013), the consideration category of leadership identified in the Ohio State Studies (Holbeche, 2013; Yukl, 2013), the employee-oriented leadership style identified in the Michigan Leadership Studies (Cutler, 2014; Quick & Nelson, 2013), the Country Club Manager identified in Blake and Mouton's Leadership Grid (Kane, 2015; Roe, 2014), Fiedler's Contingency Theory (Newstrom, 2015), the relationship orientation found in the Situational Leadership Model (Quick & Nelson, 2013), and the role that relationships play in the Leader/Member Exchange Theory.

Since relationship-oriented leaders and task-oriented leaders are on opposite sides of a continuum, it would only be logical that, of the other statistically significant relationships that were identified, task orientation indicates negative relationships with work conditions and relationships. This emphasises a parallel argument to the one expressed for relationship orientation. Leaders who are highly task oriented will not show any sensitivity or care for the working conditions of their employees, as their initial focus is on fulfilling the task. Additionally, task-oriented leaders will be much more likely to have poor relationships with subordinates. Task orientation is therefore a significant predictor of retention from a reverse point of view. This means that leaders should try to decrease their orientation towards tasks and increase their orientation towards people if they would like to play a part in retaining employees.

Two other statistically significant relationships were found. The first was between integrity and unique needs, and the second between involvement and relationships. The more a leader exhibits ethical and moral characteristics, the greater will be his/her concern for the unique needs of women. Authentic leaders will always do what is best for everyone, encourage inputs from others and share responsibility for decision making (Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang & Wu, 2014). Alternatively, leaders who show little interest in their employees and are generally uninvolved will be most likely to have negative relationships with subordinates. If leaders do not provide guidance and direction to their employees, it would only be natural that employees would not take kindly to such behaviour and would not consider it to be a positive relationship when input is only one-sided on the part of the employee.

This section has provided evidence that the type of leadership displayed by a manager can significantly predict the retention of women. All four leadership factors indicated at least one significant relationship with a retention factor.

#### **6.7.4 Research Aim 4**

The results provide support for research aim 4: To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.

For the purpose of this research aim, the leadership factors identified in section B2 (leadership opportunities for women) were analysed against the six retention factors by means of a multiple regression analysis.

Although the results did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between all of the leadership and retention factors, a number of variables were revealed to be significant predictors of retention.

The leadership factor advancement illustrated the highest number of statistically significant relationships with the retention factors. Significant relationships were found between advancement and all six retention factors (unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support). Positive relationships were reported between advancement and unique needs, growth and recognition. This finding suggests that, if support and opportunities to advance into leadership positions are provided to women, then their unique needs will also be fulfilled, they will be given greater chances to grow in their careers and they will be recognised for their expertise. In contrast, advancement has a negative relationship with work conditions, relationships and support. This follows a logical pattern, since the more opportunities that are offered or available to advance and take up leadership positions, the more likely it would be that poor work conditions would improve, as would negative relationships with one's supervisor and more support would be provided.

These findings are crucial to this study and are supported by the various retention models identified in Chapter 4. The advancement factor shown in the current study is linked to the career opportunities and training and development variables found in the Retention Factor Measurement Scale (Döckel, 2003; Döckel et al., 2006), to the career dimension of the Rewards of Work model (Britton et al., 1999; Munsamy & Bosch Venter, 2009), and to the

promotion and opportunity for growth element of the Employee Retention and Job Satisfaction Model (Das & Baruah, 2013). Women have prepared themselves for the workplace and have gained the necessary tools and experience (Davidson & Burke, 2011) but, unfortunately, in terms of leadership positions men are still dominating, with women barely being represented, if at all (Cole, 2016). If organisations do not offer women the basic opportunity to grow, advance and lead then they could risk losing their female talent. Therefore advancement is seen as the strongest significant predictor of the retention of women from the viewpoint of this study.

The second leadership factor that exhibited significant relationships with the retention factors was success beliefs. Statistically significant relationships were found between success beliefs and four of the retention factors – growth, recognition, work conditions and relationships. Positive relationships were present between success beliefs and growth and recognition. This finding offers the view that, when women believe in themselves and their success, they will be afforded greater growth opportunities and recognition for their efforts and abilities. Negative relationships were shown between success beliefs and work conditions and relationships, revealing that, when women have strong ideas of self-belief and achievement, they also will strive to improve on these two factors by decreasing poor work conditions and negative relationships. This finding is supported by a recent study that illustrated that self-efficacy, which is a person's belief in her ability to succeed, is related to improved work-life balance (Chan et al., 2016).

Work conditions such as flexibility and environment and relationships at work are contributing factors to work-life balance, which is the next leadership factor that indicated statistically significant relationships with retention factors. For instance, work-life balance is reported to have positive relationships with growth, recognition and support. As organisations help women to increase their work-life balance they will also provide for an increase in growth and development opportunities for women, as well as raising their recognition, acknowledgement and respect. Deery and Jago (2015) have successfully proven this very point by establishing that it would be improbable that women will stay with an organisation in which work-life conflict is prominent and promotional opportunities are few.

In terms of the factor of support, if more initiatives are provided to improve work-life balance this could actually result in a greater lack of support provided to women in fulfilling their duties and managing their time. The assumption would be that, if women want a greater balance between their work and family life, then they should be able to

effectively meet their deadlines and accomplish their work duties. In essence, work-life balance is a significant predictor of retention.

The other leadership factors that displayed significant relationships with the retention factors were acceptance, capabilities and barriers. Acceptance showed two significant relationships – one negative relationship with recognition and one positive relationship with support. As women struggle to gain acceptance into leadership positions in the workplace, they will be less likely to be recognised for their expertise, knowledge and experience and more likely to be given less support in terms of fulfilling their duties and managing their time. Capabilities indicated a positive relationship with work conditions, and a negative relationship was shown between barriers and support. This finding is interesting as it indicates that, when women trust in their abilities and accept their true capabilities, their work conditions could deteriorate even further. In addition, the final result shows that, when women are exposed to barriers or challenges in reaching leadership positions, they would be more likely to receive greater support from the organisation in terms of time and task management.

Therefore this section has provided evidence that if leadership opportunities are provided to women it can significantly predict their retention. All six leadership factors indicated at least one significant relationship with a retention factor.

#### **6.7.5 Research Aim 5**

The results provide partial support for research aim 5: To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

For the purpose of this research aim, the different biographical characteristics were analysed against the leadership and retention factors identified in the study. This research aim was examined by means of the t-test for independent samples (marital status), ANOVA (staff category and age) and the Kruskal-Wallis test (race and education).

The results have shown that:

- Age: Statistically significant differences were found between different age groups for certain factors, namely barriers, capabilities and work conditions. Barriers and

capabilities are two of the leadership factors, while work conditions is a retention factor. In terms of barriers, a significant difference was noted between respondents from the age groups 46 to 55 years and 56 to 65 years. It could be assumed that older respondents do not experience as many barriers as their younger counterparts, since they are in any case nearing retirement. A number of differences were noted between the different age groups in terms of capabilities, signifying that perhaps a woman's perception of her own capabilities changes over time. A difference was noted between the 36 to 45 year age group and the 56 to 65 year age group for work conditions, revealing that different types of work conditions may be of more or lesser importance to the different age groups. Every stage of life brings different challenges and advantages; a work condition such as flexibility possibly would be of greater value to a woman aged 36 to 45 years who has childcare responsibilities than to a woman aged 56 to 65 years who has more spare time. These findings indicate that statistically significant differences exist between women of different age groups regarding perceptions of leadership and retention factors.

- Race: It emerged from the study that the race groups differed significantly in terms of the leadership factors barriers, capabilities, work-life balance and advancement, and the retention factors unique needs and support. An interesting trend was shown by black respondents obtaining the highest score for barriers, capabilities, advancement and unique needs. This findings reveals that the black respondents may be more susceptible or inclined to perceived barriers in reaching leadership positions, but they may also be considered as possessing the correct capabilities, be given opportunities to advance in their careers and offered some form of concern for their unique needs. White respondents, on the other hand, scored the lowest on the dimensions of barriers and capabilities, indicating that barriers may not play such a large role for the white respondents and that they do not necessarily have the capabilities to attain positions of leadership. The highest score for work-life balance and support was attributed to Indian respondents, who also received the lowest score for advancement. Indian respondents may require higher levels of work-life balance due to their family-oriented lifestyles, they may also perceive a greater lack of support from the organisations due to the high standard that they may expect, and indian respondents also may feel that they are not provided with sufficient advancement opportunities. The coloured respondents received the lowest scores for work-life balance, unique needs and support, showing that these respondents possibly do not possess an urgent need for work-life balance and have the perception that their unique needs are not taken into account, which is accounted for by a shortage of support from their

organisation. These findings indicate that statistically significant differences exist between women of different race groups regarding their perceptions of leadership and retention factors.

- Marital status: There were no statistically significant differences reported between the single and married respondents of this study with regard to perceptions of leadership and retention factors. This is the reason why this overall alternative hypothesis for research aim 5 has only been accepted partially.
- Staff category: The respondents from the various staff categories differed significantly regarding their perceptions of leadership and retention factors. A number of differences were noted between the academic and administrative respondents. These include differences in terms of barriers, work-life balance, growth, recognition, work conditions and support. Although the academic and administrative employees work at the same organisation, their scope and type of work differs drastically. This could be one of the reasons for the differences in their responses. Respondents from top management differed with respondents from the professional/technical staff category with regard to relationship orientation. Since the respondents from top management were already in leadership positions, their perceptions of leadership styles such as relationship orientation would differ from that of other staff categories. Other statistically significant differences were noted between top management and academic respondents in terms of work conditions and support. Top management is usually a key player in the provision and allocation of working conditions and support, which would significantly alter their perceptions of these factors, and this could be a reason for the differences found.
- Educational level: The study found statistically significant differences between women of different educational levels with regard to work-life balance, work conditions and support. In all three cases, respondents with a Master's degree indicated the highest score. For work-life balance and support, respondents with a Grade 12 indicated the lowest score, while for work conditions respondents with a doctorate indicated the lowest score. These differences could be attributed to a number of factors, for instance an employee with a Master's degree would have a better paying job with numerous benefits, including flexibility, while a respondent with only Grade 12 would be in an entry-level position with an entry-level salary to match. These findings indicate that statistically significant differences exist between women of different educational levels regarding perceptions of leadership and retention factors.

This part of the study provided partial support to indicate that significant differences exist in perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

## **6.8 SUMMARY**

This chapter has discussed the factor analysis and descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics relevant to the study in order to integrate the findings of the literature study with the findings of the empirical research study which was conducted.

Thus, it was shown that the empirical research aims of the study were reached. Chapter 7 covers the conclusions, recommendations, contribution and limitations of this research, thereby concluding the study.

## **CHAPTER 7: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

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### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

This is the final chapter of the study and provides a conclusive and holistic view of the research carried out. At first, a brief review of the reasons why this research was conducted is given to provide a complete assessment of the research. This is followed by the conclusions of the study in terms of the research findings and recommendations for the field of human resource management, and specifically for organisations' retention strategies aimed at women in particular, based on the findings of this study. Suggestions for future research in terms of leadership and the retention of women are then provided. Thereafter the limitations of the study are reported and acknowledged as boundaries to the application of this research. The chapter and study concludes with an overall analysis of the contribution of the study and a final summary of the chapter.

This chapter addresses research aim 6: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management regarding retention strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of the research.

### **7.2 REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE RESEARCH**

The twenty-first century has brought many changes to the new world of work. These have been particularly in terms of innovative technologies that have changed the way the workplace is seen from a traditional point of view – employees can now work from home and at any time of the day. Another major adjustment is that employees are no longer committed to one organisation or one career for their entire lives, thereby following the course of the boundaryless career, which emphasises change, growth and movement. Coupled with these transformations is the increased participation of women in the workforce. This is true for women in all spheres of the working world, as they are slowly making their way into boardrooms and lecture halls alike. The study places specific emphasis on women in higher education since the data was drawn from a sample of women in both academic and administrative positions who were permanently employed at a higher education institution.

There is no doubt that women are progressing in the workplace; however, this progress is taking place at a rather slow pace. Furthermore, women's advancement into leadership

positions has been confronted with barriers and opposition, making it very hard for women to develop and to be seen as equals. In addition to the provision of leadership opportunities, the leadership style of supervisors is also of concern. The relationship between supervisor and employee is of such importance that many employees may even choose to leave the organisation if the quality of this relationship is unhealthy and damaging. Women are unique by their very nature and therefore may react better to one leadership style than another. Different leadership styles have diverse impacts, and finding the best type of style could assist organisations to retain their female employees. Women now make up half of the labour force in South Africa and have a wealth of knowledge and skills that can be used to the advantage of organisations, if nurtured effectively. Women are thus a distinctly invaluable source of talent that requires specialised attention.

Unfortunately the changes of the twenty-first century have brought with them many new challenges for organisations. The nature of work has been modified through the desegregation of the work and home confines. This, in turn, has led to increased stress and tension in trying to meet the demands of both roles, and increased work-life conflict for many individuals. This is especially true for women, who are the primary caregivers at home and ambitious career drivers at the office. One of the outcomes of an imbalance between work and life is that many women, particularly those who have managed to reach top positions, have opted out of the workforce altogether. This has created a gap in the market and an absence of skilled workers. This is a huge problem for organisations, which then have to deal with recruitment, selection, induction and training costs. Fortunately, organisations have come to the realisation that employee retention makes better business sense than recruiting new employees.

Organisations have to try harder than ever before to retain their talented employees, since the new world of work is characterised by a less committed workforce that will move from one organisation to another without much consideration. The notion of retention and retention strategies has gained momentum in recent years and has become a key issue for organisations to address.

The above is a brief background to the reasons for taking on the research. This study is viewed from a leadership perspective, with special attention focused on the retention of women in particular. Each of the topics covered here (women in the workplace, leadership opportunities, leadership styles, retention) was reviewed extensively in the literature study conducted in Chapters 2, 3 and 4. The research was undertaken at an institution of higher

learning due to the significance of such institutions in society as a whole. This institution has a responsibility to make every effort to retain skilled employees so that they can effectively fulfil their duties and serve the community to the best of their ability.

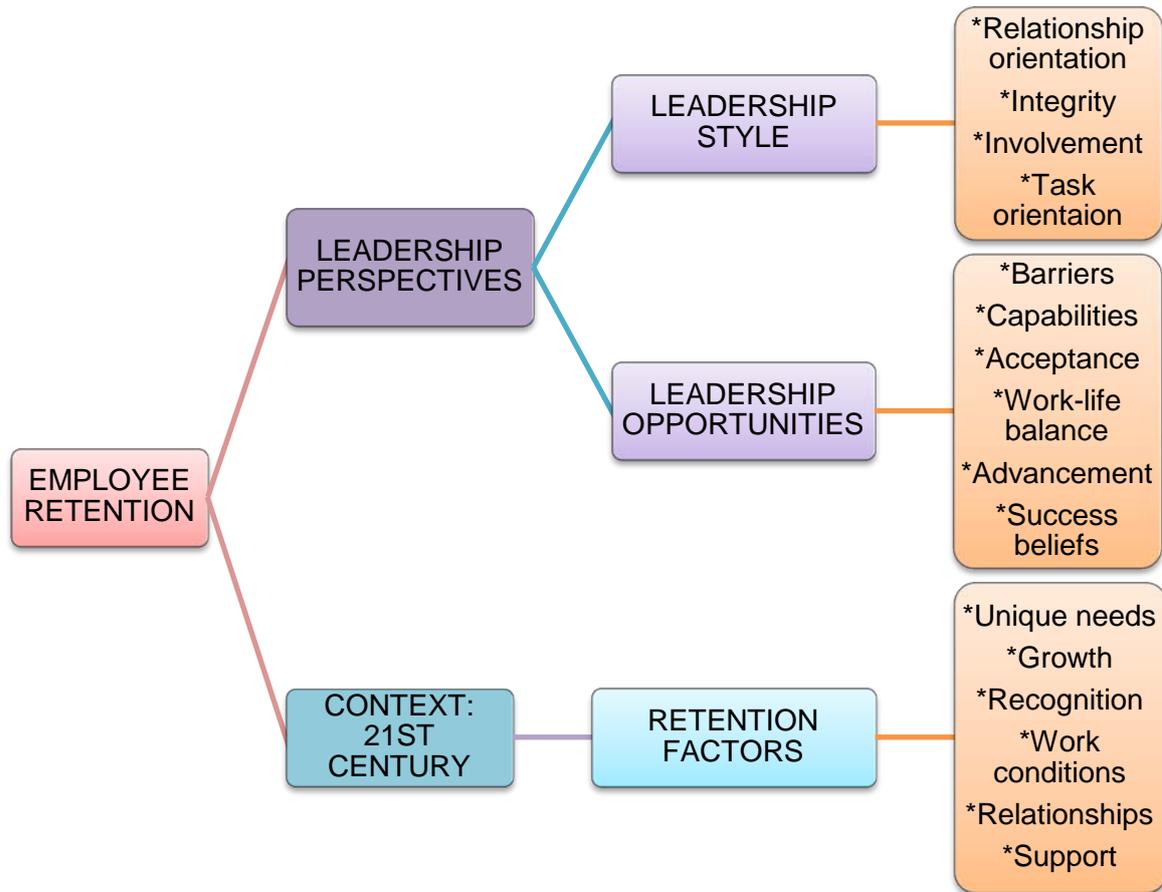
### **7.3 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON RESEARCH FINDINGS**

The nature of this study was exploratory and provided valuable insights into the retention of women from a leadership perspective. This section concentrates on the conclusions drawn from the empirical study. The statistical results provided support for the research aims that were set out in Chapter 1. The findings in terms of each of the research aims that merit discussion are now presented as conclusions.

#### **7.3.1 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 1**

**Research aim 1:** To determine the factors that affect the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective in the South African context.

Research aim 1 encompassed the general aim of the research. The researcher believes that, by accurately determining the factors that could assist in the retention of women, organisations could incorporate these factors into their retention strategies to gain a competitive advantage and become employers of choice. The factors identified in the study are shown in Figure 7.1. These factors are considered as key findings of the research and are used throughout the discussion of this chapter. The findings from each category are discussed briefly.



**Figure 7.1: Leadership and Retention Factors**

➤ Leadership style:

In the category of leadership style, four factors emerged: relationship orientation, integrity, involvement and task orientation. The findings indicate that supervisors should focus on creating strong, affirming relationships with their subordinates. Leaders who show concern for others and take the time to provide guidance and support are valued and required. The characteristic of integrity also came into play, where respondents respected leaders who displayed moral behaviour and acted in strict accordance to their beliefs. The degree of involvement displayed by a leader is also of significance. This refers to the extent to which leaders are engaged in the activities of their employees and are active participants in the fulfilment of their duties. Highly involved leaders were seen as effective, in contrast to absent managers who neglected their duties and left subordinates to fend for themselves. Lastly, the respondents valued some degree of task orientation on the part of the leader. This means that leaders must place some emphasis on the task at hand and provide the necessary resources to achieve the goals and accomplish the tasks set out for them.

Of the four factors identified, the results indicate that relationship-oriented leaders are highly desired and, when a leader displays these qualities, it is strongly linked to the retention of women.

➤ Leadership opportunities:

In the category of leadership opportunities six factors emerged: barriers, capabilities, acceptance, work-life balance, advancement and success beliefs. These findings indicate that women experience various barriers to their advancement into leadership positions and that organisations must endeavour to help eliminate or lessen the effect of these barriers in order for effective retention to take place. Women also struggle with gaining the acceptance of their male colleagues and superiors, which could be attributed to gender stereotypes or cultural beliefs. Work-life balance is a crucial issue for women and there is a constant need to reduce the conflict between the two. This is shown by the large role that family plays for women in general and the impact that it has on their advancement. However, on a positive note, women have a strong conviction in their ability to succeed and consider themselves as possessing the necessary skills and capabilities to reach leadership positions. Organisations must acknowledge the worth of female employees and expand on it by nurturing these women to achieve the goals that they are capable of reaching. Finally, women require the dedicated support of their organisations in terms of providing them with opportunities to enter into leadership positions. Without these opportunities, women will be unable to advance.

➤ Retention factors:

In the category of retention, six factors emerged: unique needs, growth, recognition, work conditions, relationships and support. The findings indicate that, if organisations want to retain their female employees, the following must be present. Firstly, the unique needs of women must be taken into account. It must be accepted that the needs of women differ from the needs of men. As such, their distinct needs must be addressed. Secondly, organisations must provide women with sufficient growth opportunities as well as stimulating work. Finally, they should also recognise the skills and expertise of women in their various fields, and commit to helping women advance within the organisation. The results also indicate that, in terms of women's personal views of retention, they have shown that they value certain work conditions, such as flexibility, competitive packages and pleasant working environments. It was also suggested that women require healthy, positive relationships at work, especially with their supervisors. Personally, women appreciate efforts made by the organisation that

help them to manage their work and time, thus effectively helping women to maintain a work-life balance.

### **7.3.2 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 2**

**Research aim 2:** To empirically examine the relationship between leadership and retention.

Supportive evidence was provided to establish that there is a relationship between leadership and retention. The direction of the results varied across the factors. However, every leadership construct displayed at least one significant relationship with a retention construct. This indicates that retention factors can be affected (either positively or negatively) by leadership styles and leadership opportunities. For instance, the two strongest relationships indicated the following relationships:

- There was a positive relationship between advancement (leadership opportunities construct) and recognition (retention construct). Therefore, if organisations provide women with opportunities to advance and develop into leadership positions, these women would experience a greater sense of recognition for their efforts and expertise, which in turn would enhance their commitment to staying with the organisation.
  
- There was a negative relationship between relationship orientation (leadership styles construct) and relationships (retention construct). When leaders show an interest in the women they work with and focus on creating a meaningful relationship with them, these women would feel that their relationships at work are healthy and this could contribute to their retention by the organisation.

These results and others like them clearly indicate that there is a relationship between leadership and retention.

### **7.3.3 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 3**

**Research aim 3:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership styles have on the retention of women.

Supportive evidence was found that established that the retention of women can be predicted by the type of leadership style used. Although significant relationships were not

found between every leadership style and the retention factors, the results did show at least one significant relationship between each leadership style and a retention factor. This indicates that integrity, involvement and task orientation as leadership styles are significant predictors of retention. However, the most prevalent conclusion that can be drawn from this research aim is that leaders who display higher degrees of relationship orientation will be more likely to retain their female employees. This is supported by the fact that relationship orientation was a significant predictor of five out of the six retention factors.

#### **7.3.4 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 4**

**Research aim 4:** To empirically examine the effect that leadership opportunities have on the retention of women.

Once again, supportive evidence was found that proves that the retention of women can be predicted by the provision of leadership opportunities. The results showed at least one significant relationship between each of the factors regarding leadership opportunities and the retention factors. The factor of advancement was seen as the strongest predictor of the retention of women, with significant relationships indicated with all six retention factors. Simply put, this finding assumes that women can be effectively retained if organisations provide them with acceptable advancement opportunities and the necessary support to reach leadership positions. This factor actually captures the very essence of the leadership opportunities perspective of the study and is therefore a finding of high importance and of the utmost value. The other major predictor of retention was success beliefs. This finding concludes that organisations will retain women who believe in the possibility of their own success in reaching leadership positions by virtue of their own capabilities, expertise, knowledge and skills, despite the challenges that they face. The other factors related to leadership opportunities – barriers, capabilities, acceptance and work-life balance – were also found to be predictors of retention, although not to as compelling an extent as advancement and success beliefs.

#### **7.3.5 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 5**

**Research aim 5:** To empirically examine whether significant differences exist in women's perceptions of leadership and retention factors among women of different ages, races, marital status, staff categories and educational levels.

The results illustrate that there are significant differences between women of different ages, races, staff categories and educational levels with regard to their perceptions of leadership and retention factors. However, no statistically significant difference was found between married and single women. Therefore only partially supportive evidence was found for this research aim.

A final conclusion with regard to this aim suggests that the retention of women is a highly complex undertaking for any organisation, taking into consideration the fact that women:

- come from different backgrounds, cultures and race groups,
- have different qualifications, experience and educational levels, and
- fall into different staff categories.

All the characteristics mentioned above play a part in women's overall perceptions of leadership and retention. Although it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, for organisations to consider each woman individually based on her specific details, this finding indicates that it is necessary to acknowledge that all women are different and that their perceptions may vary.

### **7.3.6 Conclusions Drawn from Research Aim 6**

**Research aim 6:** To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management regarding retention strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of the research.

#### *7.3.6.1 Recommendations for the field of HR: Retention strategies*

When developing organisational strategies aimed at retaining women, the following recommendations should be considered:

- The leadership style of supervisors should be examined. The findings of the study showed that, in order to retain female employees, supervisors should display a relationship-oriented style of leadership through which they create meaningful relationships with their subordinates. Supervisors could be sent on training to develop their interpersonal and communication skills. However, supervisors should not forget about the task altogether and must place some emphasis on completing the job. Supervisors should also show integrity in decision making and have some level of involvement in their employees' work.

- Leadership opportunities must be provided to qualified and experienced women. If organisations want to retain their female talent, they must offer them the chance to develop, prosper and grow within the organisation. Women see themselves as capable and worthy of reaching leadership positions but are faced with barriers and other challenges, such as balancing their work and life roles and gaining acceptance from their male counterparts. These barriers must be addressed and reduced by the organisations, which must provide the necessary support and resources to help women advance and lead.
- Organisations must cater specifically to the unique needs of women. It is evident that the needs of women differ significantly from those of men and, as such, a one-size-fits-all approach to retention will not be effective.
- Women should be provided with stimulating tasks and opportunities to develop their skills. Every person has an inherent need to grow, and by addressing this requirement organisations can reap the reward of both a skilled and satisfied workforce.
- Recognition should be given where it is due. When women feel appreciated and are acknowledged for their contribution to the organisation they will feel more committed and satisfied to remain with the organisation.
- Organisations should strive to provide work conditions that promote work-life balance and fulfil the needs of their female employees. Aspects such as increased flexibility, healthy relationships and competitive packages could lead to increased retention.
- Relationships between supervisors and female employees should be observed and repaired if necessary. The nature of the relationship between a supervisor and an employee has a significant impact on the retention of women in organisations. A healthy relationship will help retain women in an organisation.
- Organisations should try to provide their female employees with the necessary support to effectively manage their time and their workload. Overburdened employees who receive no help from their organisations are likely to be burnt out and stressed, thereby giving rise to turnover intentions. If organisations offer assistance to female employees in terms of reaching a work-life balance, these employees most likely will be retained.

#### *7.3.6.2 Recommendations for future research*

In order to enhance external validity, further research should focus on acquiring a larger, more representative sample. The sample should include more black respondents in order to be considered sufficiently representative of the population.

It is suggested that, in the context of higher education, different staff categories should be examined separately. This is due to the vast difference between academic and administrative positions. The results of such a study would offer a more precise insight into leadership and retention factors for these two distinct categories of employees.

This research could also be conducted in residential higher education institutions and in organisations in the corporate world across South Africa. This would allow the findings of the research to be applied much more broadly.

There is a need for more research on retention, specifically from a leadership perspective in the South African context. Further studies would be beneficial for organisations, since they would provide widespread recommendations for retaining female employees and help to prevent them from leaving or opting out from the working world.

#### **7.4 CONTRIBUTION**

The conclusions drawn from each research aim have been discussed. This now leads to a brief overview of how the study has made a contribution to research in the field of human resource management. This study is seen as being special and distinctive in that it provides insight into the intricate field of retention focusing specifically on women in a higher education institution. The study also examines leadership from two different perspectives: leadership styles that focus on the type of behaviour displayed by a leader/supervisor, and leadership opportunities that focus on the importance and provision of advancement prospects for women in organisations.

From an empirical point of view, this study made the following contributions:

- Identified different leadership styles that women value in a supervisor
- Identified the different factors that have an impact on the provision of leadership opportunities
- Identified general retention factors that are considered important to women
- Established a relationship between leadership and retention
- Recognised that leadership style is a predictor of retention
- Recognised that the provision of leadership opportunities is a predictor of retention
- Verified that differences exist between women regarding leadership and retention factors based on their biographical details

From a general point of view, this study made the following contributions:

- The literature review provided insights into the various concepts and theoretical models that were examined in this study, such as women in the workplace, leadership styles, leadership opportunities and retention.
- The findings of the empirical study provided a unique contribution in terms of retention factors when viewed from a leadership perspective.
- The culmination of the findings of the literature review and the empirical study is that they provide the university where the research was undertaken and other institutions of higher learning with key factors that could be used to effectively retain female employees.

## **7.5 LIMITATIONS**

The exploratory research on the relationship between leadership and retention was limited to the research literature on these constructs that is currently available. The research focused mainly on retention from a leadership perspective and did not include other factors that influence retention. Taking into account the unique view of women regarding leadership and retention, there is a shortage of research both in the South African context and abroad on the relationship between leadership and retention. Although much research has been carried out in the separate fields of leadership and retention, when considered jointly (as is the case with the current study) there is much less research available and this is acknowledged as a limitation of the study.

The study was conducted in a higher education institution and may not apply to organisations in other fields of practice. This study was conducted in the South African context and at a South African distance learning higher education institution. The study also was conducted only in the province of Gauteng. It therefore may not be applicable to the retention of every woman in South Africa, or elsewhere in the world for that matter. Although all the respondents were employees of a higher education institution, they did not all hold academic positions. This implies that the notion of women in higher education in this instance is applicable to women in both spheres – academia and administration. The results may also not be generalisable to female employees at residential higher education institutions. Depending on the circumstances, unique characteristics will have to be considered when trying to generalise the results obtained in this study.

The population and sample consisted exclusively of women, as men were excluded from this study. Therefore the findings of the research relate entirely to women and cannot be generalised to include both genders.

The sample was relatively small and was considered slightly biased due to the high representation of white respondents in comparison to black respondents in the sample. Therefore the findings of the study may be more applicable to women in the white race group between the ages of 36 and 45 years who work in the academic field. It therefore is accepted that women are multifaceted beings and that women of different ages, races, staff categories and educational levels will differ with regard to their perceptions of leadership and retention factors.

In terms of the statistical analysis, the critical value of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was set at .60 due to the highly exploratory nature of the study. This value may be interpreted as too low and is acknowledged as a limitation of the study. Another statistical limitation is the fact that some of the factors identified during factor analysis contained only two or three items.

## **7.6 SUMMARY**

This chapter marks the end of this study, which examined the retention of women in higher education from a leadership perspective. The sixth and final aim of the research was addressed.

This chapter was introduced with a brief review of the rationale for the research in order to provide a holistic assessment from where the research began to where it finally concluded. Thereafter, the conclusions drawn from the research findings were stated and explained briefly. The contribution of the study was then offered, followed by the limitations of the research. The final section provided recommendations for the field of human resource management with specific reference to retention strategies, and the chapter ended with recommendations for further research.

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**APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE**

**LEADERSHIP/RETENTION QUESTIONNAIRE (LRQ)**

**SECTION A- PERSONAL PARTICULARS (please tick the appropriate block)**

Question Code		Answer Code		
A1	RACE	1	Black	
		2	White	
		3	Coloured	
		4	Indian	
		5	Asian	

A2	AGE (years)	1	25 years and younger	
		2	26-35 years	
		3	36-45 years	
		4	46-55 years	
		5	56-65 years	

A3	MARITAL STATUS	1	Single (incl divorced, widowed)		2	Married (incl living together)	
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A4	NUMBER OF CHILDREN BELOW THE AGE OF 18	N/I	
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A5	ARE YOU THE BREADWINNER? (HIGHER EARNER AND MAIN CONTRIBUTOR TO THE HOUSEHOLD INCOME)	Y	YES	N	NO
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A6	CURRENT POSITION (job title)	S/T	
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A7	NUMBER OF YEARS' SERVICE IN CURRENT POSITION (PART OF A YEAR IS REGARDED AS A FULL YEAR)	N/I	
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A8	NUMBER OF YEARS' SERVICE AT ORGANISATION (PART OF A YEAR IS REGARDED AS A FULL YEAR)	N/I	
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A9	STAFF CATEGORY	1	Top management (P4 and higher)	
		2	Professional/Technical	
		3	Academic	
		4	Administrative	

A10	HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION	1	Lower than grade 12	
		2	Grade 12	
		3	Certificate (1 year)	
		4	Diploma (3 years)	
		5	Degree	
		6	Honours degree	
		7	Master's degree	
		8	Doctor's degree	

A11	MONTHLY GROSS SALARY (benefits excluded)	1	10 000 or less	
		2	10 001 – 20 000	
		3	20 001 - 30 000	
		4	30 001 - 40 000	
		5	40 001 - 50 000	
		6	50 001 - 60 000	
		7	More than 60 000	

A12	RACE OF YOUR SUPERVISOR	1	Black	
		2	White	
		3	Coloured	
		4	Indian	
		5	Asian	

A13	GENDER OF YOUR SUPERVISOR	F	Female	M	Male
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A14	AGE OF YOUR SUPERVISOR (APPROXIMATE)	1	25 years and younger	
		2	26-35 years	
		3	36-45 years	
		4	46-55 years	
		5	56-65 years	

N/I – Numerical Input

S/T – Short Free Text

**B LEADERSHIP**

**B1 - To what extent do you agree with the following statements on the LEADERSHIP STYLE OF YOUR MANAGER/SUPERVISOR?**

**MY MANAGER/SUPERVISOR .....**

		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
B1_1	Has widespread influence at Unisa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_2	Acts in an ethically responsible manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_3	Is a person of integrity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_4	Is very strict when enforcing rules and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_5	Allows us to take responsibility for decision-making.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_6	Is skilled in resolving conflict in an objective, fair and impartial manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_7	Is more concerned about results than people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_8	Does his/her best to create a pleasant, sociable work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_9	Promotes mutual trust and respect within our section.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_10	Outlines tasks and roles in great detail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_11	Is prepared to "roll up his/her sleeves" to assist with tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_12	Closely supervises people reporting to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_13	Recognises good performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_14	Has confidence in the abilities and skills of individuals reporting to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_15	Supports further development and growth of individuals in his/her section.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_16	Takes personal interest in the wellbeing of people reporting to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_17	Ensures that individuals have the necessary resources to complete tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_18	Is concerned about how favourably he/she is viewed by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_19	Always puts the task ahead of relationships at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_20	Uses rewards to pressure individuals into achieving goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
B1_21	Is an 'absent' manager who shows little interest in either the tasks or people in his/her section.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_22	Is mostly concerned about his/her own advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_23	Leads by example.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_24	Encourages teamwork with the aim to establish a "family" culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_25	Is able to adapt his/her management style according to the demands of the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_26	Treats everyone reporting to him/her in a fair manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_27	Delegates tasks and authority in an attempt to empower individuals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_28	Is prepared to defend individuals reporting to him/her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_29	Is worthy of his/her position.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_30	Is prepared to express his/her beliefs, motives and values despite pressure to conform.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_31	Places the needs of others above his/her own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_32	Unjustly delegates tasks to lighten his/her own workload.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_33	Assigns significant and important tasks to those he/she favours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_34	Takes the happiness of individuals reporting to him/her at heart.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B1_35	Uses networking to gain power status	1	2	3	4	5	6

**B2 - To what extent do you agree with the following statements on how you view LEADERSHIP OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN at Unisa.**

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
B2_1	Women can advance to senior positions even if they have family commitments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_2	Gender stereotypes may prevent women from reaching leadership positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
B2_3	The "old boys network" is a barrier to the progress of women in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_4	Women experience a challenge in advancing beyond a certain level in their careers (glass-ceiling phenomenon).	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_5	Attaining a position of power is appealing to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_6	Taking up leadership roles is encouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_7	Women are given autonomy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_8	There are sufficient career opportunities for me at Unisa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_9	Leadership roles are meant for men who do not have family commitments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_10	Achieving a work-life balance is a big challenge if you have a demanding career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_11	Women are often given leadership positions that are doomed to fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_12	It is easier for men than it is for women to advance into leadership positions in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_13	Women have given up on trying to advance in their careers because they are continually being denied advancement opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_14	Women tend to abuse sick leave in order to attend to family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_15	Even in dual-career couples, women place less emphasis on their careers than men.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_16	Women with children will find it harder to advance in their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_17	Women can be successful managers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_18	The opportunity to grow in my career is of utmost importance to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_19	Women in academia are able to advance into the topmost leadership positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_20	Cultural beliefs make it difficult for men to accept women leaders.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_21	Women managers are often challenged by male colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
B2_22	Women volunteer to assist with tasks in order to be considered for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_23	Women would apply for managerial positions if the opportunity arises.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_24	Women have little hope of becoming managers due to affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5	6
B2_25	Women are given guidance on advancing in their careers through personal development plans and the performance management system.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## C RETENTION IN THE WORKPLACE

C1 - To what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements on RETENTION in the workplace?

UNISA.....

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1_1	Understands the unique needs of women.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_2	Provides flexibility in terms of working hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_3	Offers a market-related package.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_4	Affords sufficient opportunities for growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_5	Provides stimulating and challenging work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_6	Is supportive of women who wish to achieve a work-life balance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_7	Discriminates against women in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_8	Recognizes women's expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_9	Is committed to the advancement of women to management positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_10	Often expects employees to take work home due to deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_11	Is an ethically responsible employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_12	Grants leave for women to attend to family responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_13	Allows employees to work from home or telecommute if necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
C1_14	Provides better employee benefits than most other companies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C1_15	Has sympathy for the unique needs of working mothers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**C2 - To what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements on YOUR PERSONAL VIEW OF RETENTION?**

I .....

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
C2_1	Am happy in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_2	Require more support to fulfill a work-life balance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_3	Must strictly adhere to working hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_4	Often experience conflict between my work and personal life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_5	Find it difficult to manage my time due to work demands.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_6	Would leave Unisa if I was offered a similar job and salary elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_7	Often feel like there is unrealistic work demands being placed on me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_8	Love my job but dislike the work environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_9	Have a good relationship with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_10	Find it difficult to concentrate at work when I am worried about my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_11	Am given the necessary support by my supervisor when I have family commitments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_12	Would consider leaving this job for one that offers greater flexibility in working hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_13	Use technology to achieve a greater work-life balance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_14	Do not mind being available when I am not at the office.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_15	Would move from one organisation to another if the benefits are significantly better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_16	Will probably remain with Unisa until I retire.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Slightly disagree</b>	<b>Slightly agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
C2_17	Enjoy having set working hours as it keeps my work and family life separate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_18	Will consider leaving my job if the demands of my family are not met.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_19	Cannot leave my job due to financial constraints even though I would want to be at home with my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_20	Am intimidated by my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_21	Value the opportunity to study further.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_22	Am thinking about resigning due to poor relationships at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_23	Rely on my colleagues for moral support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_24	See Unisa as a stepping stone and will resign as soon as a better opportunity arises.	1	2	3	4	5	6
C2_25	I often search for other job opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6

**THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE**